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## Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the potential of SFL genre-based pedagogy for teaching College English writing: A case study at a university in China

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**Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the potential of  
SFL genre-based pedagogy for teaching College English  
writing: A case study at a university in China**

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the  
award of the degree

**Doctor of Education**

from

**University of Wollongong**

by

**Leimin Stella Shi**

B.Ed., M.A. TESOL

**Faculty of Social Sciences**

**2015**

## **CERTIFICATION**

I, Leimin Stella Shi, declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctoral of Education, in the Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Wollongong, is wholly on own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged.

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Leimin Stella Shi

30 April, 2015

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## ABSTRACT

In China, there is increasing concern that, although developing students' overall communicative competence has been the central goal of the current College English curriculum requirements (CECR) since 2004, this important goal has remained largely unfulfilled. This failure may be directly attributed to the lack of specification provided in the CECR as to how to support students to develop their writing skills (J. Gao & Huang, 2010), particularly within a communicative language teaching (CLT) framework. Another reason that may explain the insufficient fulfilment of the CECR is teachers' beliefs about effective ways of teaching writing. According to Fullan (2001), achieving any successful curriculum innovation requires at least two essential components, comprising their pedagogical assumptions (e.g. beliefs) and teaching approaches (e.g. pedagogical assumptions underlying the new curriculum). However, the extent to which Chinese EFL teachers perceive CLT as the goal of the curriculum innovation, and the role of writing instruction within this curriculum, has not been sufficiently investigated in the context of applying College English curriculum innovation. Providing teachers with an effective approach for teaching writing in the CECR, and examining their beliefs regarding its implementation, appears to be a critical step in enhancing students' overall communicative competence.

This study proposes that the genre-based pedagogy (the genre pedagogy hereafter) in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) may be the key to this development. There is a significant body of literature discussing the positive results of employing the genre pedagogy in teaching English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) in worldwide contexts (Chaisiri, 2010a in Thailand; F. Cheng, 2008 in Taiwan; Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998 in Singapore; Myskow & Gordon, 2009 in Japan), thus showing promise for its success in the Chinese context as well.

This study therefore investigates how Chinese EFL teacher participants perceive the value of SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in College English classes. This will be examined through the lens of teacher cognition (TC), as the success of any educational innovation relies on teachers' beliefs (Fullan, 2001).

A qualitative case study method was employed, drawing on six teachers' perceptions of writing pedagogy in the Faculty of Foreign Languages at a Chinese university. Three primary qualitative techniques, specifically interviews, classroom observations and students' writing samples, were

used for data collection to address the overarching research question: *How do Chinese EFL teachers view the effectiveness of SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in College English classes?* Participating teachers attended two training workshops in the SFL genre pedagogy. Data above were collected both before and after the workshop phases.

The theoretical framework utilized in this study drew on an integration of three theoretical perspectives: Teacher cognition theory (hereafter TC, a theory encompassing teachers' beliefs, knowledge and other related concepts), and the SFL genre approach and its underlying socio-cultural theory in particular. Borg's (2003) model of TC framed the overall relationship between TC and related factors about writing instruction, while Shulman's (1986, 1987) model of teacher knowledge was used to examine teachers' knowledge base in greater depth. The SFL genre pedagogy in a three staged model, namely modelling, joint negotiation of text, and independent construction of text, was adopted to inform the instructional design and text analysis of students' writing samples (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988). Hammond and Gibbons' (2005) conception of interactional scaffolding assisted in the researcher's identification of scaffolding strategies that the teachers applied to support their students in classroom interactions.

Results revealed that the Chinese EFL teachers' initial writing instruction was typical of a structurally oriented classroom that focused on the achievement of linguistic accuracy and correct form use in students' final writing products. This finding is in opposition to the mandate of the CECR, which emphasizes a focus on the social purposes behind producing texts as part of the CLT approach, a focus which drew limited attention in the observed classes. The pre-workshop findings also provided significant insights into the sources impacting the teachers' initial cognition about writing instruction and how it was related to the failure of the CECR innovation. The positive changes to teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction and teaching practices that appeared to occur after the workshops, demonstrated the powerful impact of professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy on TC, even though teachers' stated beliefs in the pedagogy and actual teaching practices were not strongly related. Furthermore, despite there being only one classroom intervention using the genre pedagogy, it was evident that the majority of the students made improvements in their writing products, which coincided with the changes in their teachers' cognition and teaching practices.

As indicated above, the training in the SFL genre pedagogy had a strong impact on teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction and subsequently on their students' learning outcomes as well; however, to what extent the teachers put their stated beliefs in the pedagogy into actual teaching practice varies depending on their prior and changed beliefs regarding writing instruction, and various contextual factors. Overall, the SFL genre pedagogy has demonstrated its potential to support Chinese students' learning of writing to achieve the CECR innovation goals, but long-term training and application of the pedagogy, teachers' pre-existing pedagogical knowledge and beliefs, and reforms on CET assessment and local contextual factors (e.g. class size and syllabus design) also need to be considered. Consequently, this study contributes to enriching the research on the value of the SFL genre pedagogy in EFL contexts. The study also has important implications for in-service teacher education and education administration in China, and future research on TC about language teaching in general and EFL writing instruction in particular.

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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND TERMS**

CE	College English
CECR	College English Curriculum Requirements
CET	College English Test
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
TC	Teacher Cognition
L1 /L2	First/Second Language
MoE	Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

There has been increasing concern that, many years after implementation, a key goal of College English (CE) teaching in the current national CE curriculum requirements (CECR) in China - developing students' overall communicative competence, has remained largely ineffective to date, particularly in terms of writing competence. This goal was specifically designed to meet the needs of China's developing social climate and international exchanges, and is stated in the current national CECR launched by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (MoE). However, there is no specification in the CECR as to how to adequately assist students in achieving this goal within the communicative language teaching (CLT)-based curriculum (J. Gao & Huang, 2010). For some teachers, the CECR is considered "more a decoration than a practical instruction to teaching" (J. Gao & Huang, 2010, p. 83), lacking detailed instruction for its implementation with the underlying CLT approach.

Support for developing students' writing competence as a component of communicative competence is especially inadequate, and there are insufficient writing pedagogies to assist Chinese students' learning of writing. The models of language use in the teaching of writing in China remain very traditional (Martin & Rose, 2007) and few teachers are guided by theory when teaching writing (Tian, 2005; You, 2004b). Instead, writing instruction in CE classes is often driven by CE tests (CET) with a strong focus on linguistic accuracy and final writing products (J. Gao, 2007). The CECR goal of teaching CE writing for social communicative purposes has yet to be addressed. Researchers in China (e.g. J. Gao, 2007; Huang, 2001; Ji, 2009; T. Li & Wang,

2009; Qian, 2010; Tian, 2010; Yan, 2010) have examined effective writing pedagogies to enhance students' writing competence, but most of the studies are theoretically oriented. Recommendations for effective writing pedagogies are often based on discussions about existing problems in teaching practices and the values of various writing pedagogies, lacking empirical evidence. In essence, there is an urgent need for empirical investigation of successful writing pedagogies to facilitate the development of students' writing ability for social purposes as a mandate of the CECR goal.

Recent studies in teaching English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL) suggest that the genre-based pedagogy (hereafter referred to the genre pedagogy) in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) has the potential to assist Chinese students' writing development in CE classes (e.g. Ji, 2009; Na, n.d.; Tian, 2010). In this pedagogy, students are encouraged to engage in interactions to develop their understanding of how language functions to achieve the social purpose of a target genre through teachers' explicit instruction and immediate support, and eventually become independent writers of the genre. The value of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting students' writing development has been demonstrated in many EFL/ESL contexts worldwide, such as in Indonesia (Emilia, 2005; Rozimela, 2005), Thailand (Chaisiri, 2010a, 2010b; Kongpetch, 2006; Krisnachinda, 2006), Singapore (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998), Taiwan (Y. Chen & Su, 2012), and Japan (Myskow & Gordon, 2009). As such, this pedagogy shows potential to be an effective support for the development of Chinese EFL students' writing competence.

To further aid Chinese students' learning of writing, Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about SFL writing pedagogy needs to be considered. According to Fullan (2001), achieving a particular educational innovation goal requires changes to at least three aspects, namely materials (e.g. curriculum materials), teaching approaches (e.g. pedagogical assumptions underlying the new curriculum), and beliefs (e.g. pedagogical assumptions). In this sense, successful implementation of the CE curriculum innovation nationwide relies on Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs in the change. For SFL genre pedagogy to become a powerful tool in accomplishing the curriculum innovation,

CE teachers' perceptions of the value of this pedagogy become a pivotal issue. In this study, it is argued that teachers' maintenance of positive beliefs in the pedagogy is the core foundation required to achieve successful implementation of the SFL genre pedagogy.

The motivation of this study, therefore, is rooted in Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in their tertiary contexts. It has resulted from a comprehensive consideration of several key issues, namely the innovation goal of the CECR and the lack of specifications behind its CLT-oriented approach, the urgent need for effective pedagogy in teaching CE writing and the positive discussions about applying the genre pedagogy, and the pivotal role that teacher cognition (TC) plays in applying educational changes.

When adapting the SFL genre pedagogy to Chinese contexts, however, it is important to consider several local contextual issues, instead of blindly embracing the whole (Halliday, 1994). The following section provides an overview of the context of teaching CE writing in China.

## **1.2 The Context of Teaching CE Writing in Tertiary Education in China**

### **1.2.1 CE teaching, CECR and CET in China**

College English is a compulsory course for all non-English major undergraduates<sup>1</sup> in the first two years of university study (L. Cheng, 2008; J. Li & Qin, 2006; Y. Zheng & Cheng, 2008). The CECR and the CET stand for the national curriculum and the assessment system of CE respectively. Widely known as Intensive Reading, the CE course is no longer primarily a reading course (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996) but a course aiming to develop students' integrated English skills through intensively reading a number of texts<sup>2</sup> and carrying out associated tasks covering

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<sup>1</sup> To differ from students who major in English, all undergraduates who have other majors (e.g. Science, Mathematics, Education and so forth) in China are named non-English major undergraduates/students.

<sup>2</sup> Normally a CE textbook includes eight units. Teachers finish teaching each unit within two weeks. In a 19 to 20 weeks' semester, teachers are required to finish teaching one textbook of Intensive Reading.

vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, speaking and writing. It is described as “an integral part” and “basic course” for all undergraduate students in the present national CE curriculum (MoE, 2007, p. 25).

The current CECR (see Appendix 1) is the third version of the national CE curriculum requirements, and it identifies the development of students’ overall communicative competence as the central goal of CE teaching since its trial version released in 2004 (see Appendix 1). As is illustrated in Figure 1.1 below, the first (launched by MoE in 1985 and 1986<sup>3</sup>) and second (released in 1999) national CE syllabi anticipated that CE students would graduate with higher comprehension competence, particularly in reading ability. The trial version of the current CECR was launched with a significant shift towards meeting the needs of qualified personnel in the international environment. As it describes, “The object of College English is to develop students’ ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking...[then] communicate effectively...to meet the needs of China’s social development and international exchanges” (MoE, 2007, p. 25). As such, the CLT approach is formally advocated and to develop students’ overall communicative competence is set as the ultimate goal in teaching CE. Accordingly, students’ writing competence becomes an important component of communicative competence in the CE teaching. This means that there is an increasing need for an effective writing pedagogy to support students’ learning.

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<sup>3</sup> The initial national CE syllabus consists of two versions: One was launched in 1985 for students with a Science major and the other was launched in 1986 for students with an Arts major.

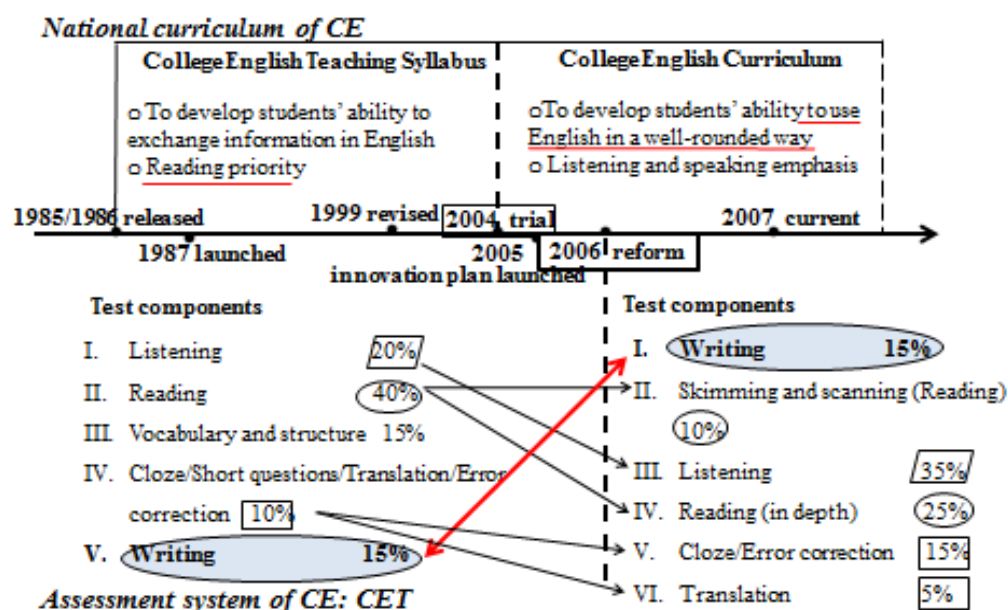


Figure 1.1 National Curriculum of CE and Associated Assessment Tasks in CET4

An integral component of CECR and CE teaching is the CE assessment system, the CET, which is a nationwide large-scale standardised test administered by the National CE Testing Committee on behalf of the MoE launched in 1987 (L. Cheng, 2008; Y. Jin, 2011; H. Li, 2009). Attempting to assess students' overall communicative competence for achieving the CECR goal, the CET includes two levels of CET4 (CET Band 4, see Appendix 2 for a sample of previous test paper) and CET6 (CET Band 6) as a higher level of CET4. CET4 is the test that all non-English major students need to take when they finish their two-year's CE study to ensure that they have achieved the requirements specified in the CECR (You, 2004a). To what extent students can develop their communicative competence through CE study is also the focus of this study.

The high stakes resulting from CET are significant, and reforms were conducted to better reflect students' real communicative competence. Previous literature (L. Cheng, 2008; Fang, 2010; F. Gao, 2010; Guo, 2006; H. Li, 2009; W. Yu, 2005) highlights at least three high stakes of the CET. The CET4 certificate plays an important, even essential role for students in obtaining their Bachelor degrees in most universities and colleges. It is also an asset to help students in the job market. Lastly, the results of students' CET performance are one criterion of institutions'

evaluation of teachers' performance. As a result, passing exams becomes the key driving force of learning and teaching CE (Fang, 2010).

In short, attempts to achieve the CECR goals of developing students' overall communicative competence in the assessment system CET4 have been largely unsuccessful. Focusing on developing students' writing competence in particular, researchers (e.g. J. Gao, 2007; Ji, 2009; Qian, 2010; Tian, 2010) have been endeavouring to work out effective ways to provide assistance.

### **1.2.2 An overview of research on writing pedagogy in the Chinese context**

Researchers (e.g. L. Deng, Chen, & Zhang, 2014; J. Gao, 2007; Huang, 2001; Luo, 2012; Yan, 2010; Yang, 2005) have attempted to determine which overall writing approach would be the most beneficial for the Chinese context and have reached different conclusions. Yang (2005) recommends, based on a survey study, that a product process approach<sup>4</sup> is helpful for intermediate-level students, but advanced-level students may benefit more from a process genre approach. Gao (2007), however, suggests an eclectic approach, basing his recommendation on the theoretical analyses of CE writing instruction problems and the characteristics of the main writing pedagogies, namely process, genre and process genre approaches. Wang (2013) highlights the potential of the genre approach, and argues that the genre approach offers more benefits than other traditional approaches, as a result of evidence collected from a range of data sources: Students' writing samples, interviews and questionnaire responses.

Other research has focused on specific techniques of writing pedagogies. For instance, Y. Zhang (2006) investigates the functions of 'group conference' strategy; Y. Wang (2011) explores 'peer feedback', which is similar to Zhao's (2010) research on the method of peer and teacher feedback. On the whole, although there has been much attention paid to effective writing approaches, or to

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<sup>4</sup>As will be further discussed in Chapter 2, the product approach focuses on students' awareness of the rhetorical patterns and text organizations in their final writing product while the process approach emphasizes that writing is a process involving certain steps of drafting and redrafting (Nunan, 1999). The genre approach views writing as a means to achieve social communicative purposes. The product process approach and the process genre approach are the combination of the three writing approaches above.

strategies appropriate for Chinese EFL students' learning of writing, most of the studies are theoretically oriented and/or there was a lack of empirical studies which examine the effectiveness of a writing approach. However, few conclusions on writing approaches have been drawn or agreed upon. It seems that no writing approach is thus far commonly accepted by Chinese educators as the most beneficial for Chinese EFL learners. The models of language use in teaching writing remain very traditional in China (Martin & Rose, 2007), concentrating on presenting and evaluating forms of language features, instead of meanings, in text construction.

### **1.2.3 The challenges of teaching CE writing as a component of communicative competence**

A number of challenges have been documented as having a negative impact on providing adequate support for Chinese students' learning of writing in CE classes. These obstacles include, but are not limited to, test-driven teaching situation, teacher-centred methodology, shortage of EFL teachers, large class size, and misinterpretation the CECR goal of communicative competence (discussed in detail in Section 2.3.1).

An overview of the context of CE writing instruction suggests that the teaching methods are unsuccessful in assisting Chinese EFL students' learning to write, because writing instruction in China commonly lacks a systematic writing pedagogy (Chu & Gao, 2006; J. Gao, 2007; G. Hu, 2007; Rao, 2002; Y. Zhang, 2008) and faces significant contextual barriers. There is a need for further development of teaching methods, teaching abilities and a greater understanding of the curriculum (J. Gao & Huang, 2010) with adequate consideration of the contextual factors.

There have been growing discussions regarding different approaches to teaching second language (L2) writing. Among them, the pedagogy in the SFL genre approach seems to be the most promising to assist Chinese learners, as many studies have demonstrated substantial improvements in students' writing outcomes with the help of this pedagogy in ESL/EFL contexts worldwide.



#### **1.2.4 Research on the SFL genre pedagogy in Australia and ESL/EFL contexts worldwide**

There is a significant body of literature centred on western approaches to L2 writing instruction, among which the SFL genre pedagogy has become one of the most popular, as the benefits for supporting students' writing development has been demonstrated in both native and non-native contexts. Framed in Systemic Functional Linguistics and socio-cultural theories of learning, this approach emphasizes language as a means to make meaning. Learning to write is learning to use appropriate language to achieve social communicative purposes in specific social contexts, that is, to develop control of genres. The strategies employed under these principles have been known as the SFL genre pedagogy, and will be referred hereafter as 'genre pedagogy' (Rose & Martin, 2012) in this thesis. In Australia, the SFL genre pedagogy has been extensively used in mainstream literacy teaching in schools (e.g. Metropolitan East Disadvantaged School), in adult immigrant language programs (e.g. the NSW Adult Migrant Education Program) (Derewianka, 1990; Drury & Webb, 1991; Hammond, 1989; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2003) and in tertiary contexts (e.g. Dreyfus, Macnaught, & Humphrey, 2008; Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011).

The implementation of this pedagogy also has achieved positive results in non-native English speaking educational contexts such as in Thailand (Chaisiri, 2010a, 2010b; Kongpetch, 2006; Krisnachinda, 2006), Indonesia (Emilia, 2005; Rozimela, 2005), Japan (Myskow & Gordon, 2009), Taiwan (F. Cheng, 2008) and Singapore (Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998). For example, Lin (2006) reported on a third-year writing program in a Japanese university, for which both students and instructors provided very positive feedback about the pedagogy. Specifically, the students strongly felt that they benefited from the modelling of texts and learning grammatical features in particular. The teachers appreciated the teaching-learning cycle and the implementation model of the pedagogy. They believed that the students had made visible progress in their final products by engaging in various tasks and activities.

In China, however, few teachers use systematic writing pedagogies to inform their teaching practices, although there have been discussions on the values of writing approaches. Tian (2005)

argues that few Chinese EFL teachers are equipped with the knowledge of western writing approaches. The support for students' writing development is insufficient due to the lack of systematic writing pedagogies (Chu & Gao, 2006; Rao, 2002; Y. Zhang, 2008). Most discussions about the effects of western writing approaches seem to be theoretical and few are based on empirical studies (see Section 1.2.2). On the contrary, the SFL genre pedagogy has produced positive results in many ESL/EFL contexts as discussed above, including in Asian countries such as Singapore, Korea and Japan, where the teaching of writing is usually in the traditional teacher-centred style (Phuong-Mai, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2005), as it is in China.

Despite the potential benefits of using the SFL genre pedagogy, when employing this pedagogy, educators still need to take many local contextual issues into account, instead of embracing the whole concept (Halliday, 1994). It is unlikely to succeed if we simply adopt a pedagogy from one cultural context to another (Tudor, 1993). Various local factors, such as current teaching pedagogies, students' learning needs and teaching traditions need to be considered (Bradley & Orleans, 1989; Sampson, 1984). The same may be true when adapting the SFL genre pedagogy to Chinese contexts. Halliday (1994) and Derewianka (2003) emphasize the necessity of modifying this pedagogy to suit different contexts. Local contextual issues, such as the broad categories of "culture, history and traditions", and even more specific elements such as teaching materials, teachers, learners and assessment, need to be addressed to suit the local context (Derewianka, 2003, p. 144). Accordingly, when introducing the SFL genre pedagogy into a tertiary level context in China, it is necessary to find out how it can be adjusted and what issues may emerge. The present study was inspired by this need, and aimed to explore the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy to teach CE writing, where there is a lack of systematic writing pedagogy to assist students to achieve the CECR goal.

However, in the end, all adjustments made to the SFL genre pedagogy when adapting it to Chinese contexts rely on teachers' beliefs regarding this pedagogical change. Introducing the SFL

genre pedagogy, as well as the CLT approach to a Chinese context, requires teachers' support for such changes to be successful.

### **1.2.5 Research on TC in the field of language teaching in China**

There has been a substantial body of research on TC about L2 teaching in the past 30 years (Baker, 2014; Borg, 2003). Researchers have been dedicated to investigating the powerful role of TC in shaping teachers' classroom teaching practices, and the sources impacting the development of TC about language teaching. It is generally accepted that what language teachers do in their classroom practices is driven by what they think, know and believe. In essence, teachers' beliefs strongly impact the degree to which new pedagogies are implemented in the classroom practices (e.g. C. Deng & Carless, 2010; Kirkgöz, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2008; Roehrig & Kruse, 2005; F. Zhang & Liu, 2013). On the other hand, teachers' cognition about language teaching is influenced by teachers' experience of schooling, professional coursework, classroom practices, and various contextual factors (Borg, 2003). Contextual factors, such as class size, students' language proficiency, assessment, culture, curriculum, and school environment and so forth, have a powerful impact on TC and can also influence the implementation of pedagogical changes.

In China, there has been increasing research interest in TC about language teaching and its impact on language teachers' classroom practices (e.g. Cheng, 2012; Cui, 2012; C. Deng & Carless, 2010; Q. Gao, 2007; Gu & Wu, 2014; H. Hu, 2005) indicating the recognition of this research field apart from the mainstream educational research. Some studies have explored how TC is closely related to teachers' behaviours in classroom teaching. For example, B. Zhang (2011) reports in a survey study that teaching practices are strongly influenced by various components of TC including teachers' knowledge structure of their teaching, teachers' classroom decision-making, teachers' personality and the teacher-student relationship, and their choices regarding teaching approaches based on their understanding of students. Similarly, in a study of the connections between Chinese English teachers' cognition and efficient classroom teaching, C. Zhang (2013) concludes that keeping a consistent relationship between TC and teaching practices, and effective

communication between the teacher and students, is the way to achieve successful CE classroom teaching. The significant impact of TC on teaching practices is evident in both studies above.

In addition to highlighting the powerful impact of TC on teaching practices, previous literature has also revealed the strong impact of various contextual factors on TC and the relationship between TC and teaching practices. For instance, in an investigation about teachers' beliefs in national curricular innovation focusing on task-based language teaching and learning, Zheng and Borg (2014) argue that teachers' implementation level of a pedagogical change results from teachers' understanding of the new pedagogy, teachers' previous beliefs regarding language teaching and learning, and a few contextual factors such as large size classes, students' language proficiency, time pressure and assessment. In particular, F. Zhang and Liu (2013) investigated whether teachers' beliefs were congruent with the national curriculum innovation, and the contextual factors hindering changes to teachers' beliefs concerning the innovation. They argue that while teachers' overall beliefs are consistent with the innovation, there exist those with constructivist- or traditional-oriented beliefs. A number of contextual factors, including Confucian culture, curriculum reform, high-stakes testing, and school environment, were found to strongly facilitate or constrain teachers' belief development. The findings from both studies above highlight the powerful impact of contextual factors on TC, which are in line with Borg's (2003) argument that contextual factors may hinder language teachers' ability to implement their real beliefs into teaching practices.

As a recent development in the educational research field in China (F. Zhang & Liu, 2013), research on Chinese EFL teachers' cognition involves different areas such as the relationships between TC and teaching practices, educational innovation and the contextual factors identified in the studies above. However, no literature to date, whether published in China or overseas, has examined Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about introducing a writing pedagogy as a pedagogical change, and how the changes in teachers' beliefs are reflected in teaching practices and are related to students' writing outcomes. This is important as it is only through classroom

practices that teachers' knowledge and beliefs about the changes can be transferred to their students through teachers' pedagogical knowledge. Whether and to what extent the pedagogical changes are linked to students' learning outcomes can then be revealed which, in return, will suggest the effects of the pedagogy. Nevertheless, teachers are "active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Applying the genre pedagogy to a Chinese context also depends on Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the pedagogy. Investigating the potential of this pedagogic innovation thus necessitates an examination of the powerful impact of TC on teachers' instructional decision-making, and the situation of teaching CE writing in China. This study is therefore motivated by the need to examine how Chinese EFL teachers make sense of the value of the SFL genre pedagogy in teaching CE writing in their contexts.

### **1.3 A Summary of the Research Problem**

To assist Chinese students' learning of writing in CE classes as a mandate of the CECR requires an effective writing pedagogy with adequate consideration of teachers' knowledge of, and belief in, the pedagogy. It is evident that while developing students' overall communicative competence is set as the central goal of CE teaching in the current CECR, there is a lack of specifications of strategies for assisting students to develop their writing communicative competence in this national curriculum (J. Gao & Huang, 2010). Even though the CLT approach is utilized to achieve the goal in the CECR, there is the lack of explanation about this approach and how it can be applied in teaching practice. Support for students' learning of writing is particularly insufficient because of the lack of a systematic writing pedagogy. Meanwhile, the important role of teachers' beliefs in the CLT approach, the goal of CE curriculum innovation, is not addressed. It is therefore clear that, in order to successfully help students to improve their writing competence as a CECR mandate, there is an urgent need for an efficient writing pedagogy with sufficient attention given to teachers' beliefs in the pedagogical change. Relevant training opportunities need to be provided to develop teachers' knowledge about, and belief in, the pedagogical change as well.

On the other hand, a significant body of literature has produced positive results about the SFL genre pedagogy in many ESL/EFL contexts worldwide. In the meantime, there is increasing

research interest in TC about language teaching in China. Investigating Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the effectiveness of the genre pedagogy in teaching CE writing may provide valuable information to areas of the SFL genre pedagogy and TC on both the teaching and research levels.

#### **1.4 The Purpose of the Study and Research Strategy**

As demonstrated in the previous sections, the SFL genre pedagogy is considered highly to effectively support Chinese EFL students in their learning to write and to consequently achieve the CECR's primary goal. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore how Chinese EFL teachers perceive the benefits of the SFL genre pedagogy towards contributing to the development of their students' writing competence in CE classes. Ultimately, this study aims to address the overarching research question below:

*How do Chinese EFL teachers view the effectiveness of SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in College English classes?*

The following sub-questions were formulated to achieve the research purpose:

- How do Chinese EFL teachers articulate their current strategies to support students' learning of writing?
- How do Chinese EFL teachers make sense of the genre pedagogy to effectively support students' learning of writing?
- What is the relationship between students' writing outcomes and their teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy?

A qualitative case study research method was used to investigate the impact of this pedagogical change on Chinese EFL teachers' cognition and teaching practices, and on their students' subsequent learning outcomes. The exploratory nature of providing a detailed description and interpretation of the issue under investigation characterized this study as qualitative research (Ary,

Jacobs, & Razavieh, 2002; Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In particular, a case study was chosen which drew upon multiple sources to examine the research question in detail and in depth (Creswell, 2007). The qualitative case study method clearly suited the purpose of the current research study.

In response to the first research sub-question, the teacher participants' initial understandings about effective writing instructions were investigated, which was useful to subsequently understand teachers' beliefs in the genre pedagogy. On this basis, teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy was examined to address the second research sub-question. Before collecting the data in relation to this pedagogy, professional workshop training in the genre approach was offered to the teacher participants. This training enabled the study to appreciate teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy from teachers' statements and teaching practices, and possible changes in their students' writing outcomes after their exposure to the intervention of this pedagogy. The relationships between changes to the teachers' cognition and their students' learning outcomes could then be analysed to address the last research sub-question. Consequently, this study investigated Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the SFL genre pedagogy in aiding their students' learning of writing in CE classes.

Data were collected in two phases, depending on the conduct of the workshop training in the SFL genre pedagogy with the teacher participants. In the first phase, pre-workshop interviews with individual teachers, classroom observations and associated teaching plans were undertaken to explore the teacher participants' initial cognition about writing instructions, which corresponded to the first research sub-question. Consistent data sources (except for teaching plans) were involved in the second phase. Information obtained from post-workshop findings helped to reveal teachers' perceptions of the SFL genre pedagogy, which was in response to the second research sub-question. Additionally, in both observations, student participants' in-class writing samples were collected, aiming to gather evidence to address the last research sub-question.

With regard to the theoretical framework, a few analytical tools applied in this study drew on three major research sources, namely TC, SFL genre theories, and sociocultural theories. Research on TC was regarded as the first key source, because investigating the potential of the genre pedagogy focused on teachers' perceptions. Specifically, Borg's (2003) model of TC was employed to frame how teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy was related to their behaviours in writing instructions and related factors. Because Borg's model is too general (Gerami & Noordin, 2013), Shulman's (1986, 1987) model was also used for its more comprehensive coverage of teachers' knowledge base. This model was particularly useful to identify the teachers' knowledge base of writing instruction both before and after the workshop training in the genre pedagogy.

SFL genre theories were the second key source of theoretical frameworks which were consistent with the guidance for the instructional design. To achieve the research purpose, the overall design of the instructional plans, was guided by the teaching-learning cycle, the implementation model of the SFL genre pedagogy (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988). In particular, Callaghan and Knapp's (1989) model of instructing in the Discussion Genre was followed because it explains how language functions to achieve the social purpose of this genre in detail. Analysing students' writing samples therefore followed similar textual features of Discussion Genre texts in this model.

Another framework on a more detailed level of data analysis was Hammond and Gibbons' (2005) scaffolding theory. This theory informed the design of pedagogic intervention to be implemented by the teachers. Similarly, teachers' knowledge about the socio-cultural theory would also be suggested in the meantime. Consequently, the SFL genre theories were used as the analytic tools to indicate the changes to the teacher participants' knowledge of teaching the Discussion Genre and the changes in their students' writing performance.

## **1.5 The Significance of the Study**

Underlying the success of introducing any pedagogical change is teachers' beliefs about the usefulness of the changes. Investigating Chinese EFL teachers' beliefs regarding the potential of



the SFL genre pedagogy in this study therefore contributes to a number of areas in the SFL genre pedagogy and TC on both practical and theoretical levels.

On a practical level, this study's findings may shed light on teacher education and the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting Chinese students' learning of writing to learners in other EFL contexts. The impact of professional training on both TC and teaching practices can be assessed because instructing in writing with the genre pedagogy was based on the teachers' attendance of training workshops on the pedagogy and the interviews were conducted subsequently. The results may be beneficial for designing future programs of teacher education. Furthermore, applying the genre pedagogy in this study may possibly address the lack of systemic writing pedagogy in CE teaching, and thus has direct significance to teaching CE writing. In return, the information obtained may provide immediate benefit to policy makers, in-service teacher educators and CE teachers in China. On the basis of this study, the application of the SFL genre pedagogy in China can be expanded to teaching writing courses to English major students, and to teaching other language competencies. The insights gained from this study into the SFL genre pedagogy may also be applied to other EFL contexts.

On a theoretical level, this study contributes to three main areas for future research on TC. The first is related to the research purpose of exploring Chinese teacher participants' cognition when applying a western writing approach to practice in their contexts. As Borg (2006) points out, there is relatively little research on TC about EFL writing instructions. This study may have value in filling this gap. Similarly, it may also indicate how changes in TC about teaching writing are linked to teachers' real teaching practices. Last but not least, this study's findings may add evidence to the research on TC in relation to the degree of connection between changes to TC and students' learning outcomes, where there is a lack of research findings (Borg, 2006). This is because changes in teachers' knowledge base and teaching practices were compared with their students' writing outcomes in this study in order to reveal any possible links between them.

## **1.6 Overview of the Thesis**

This thesis consists of six chapters. This chapter provides an overview of the background and the design of the research. In Chapter 2, a review of the relevant literature focuses on three major areas of CLT, writing pedagogy (the genre pedagogy in particular), and those factors impacting TC. Chapter 3 presents the multistage analytical process adopted in this study including theories of genre and TC. In Chapter 4, a description of the research design, research setting, the participants, the research instruments, the data analysis, ethical issues and an overview of the research limitations is given. Chapter 5 presents the result and discussion of findings drawn from the data analysis in this study. This discussion is informed by interviews with teacher, classroom observations, students' writing samples as well as teachers' pre-workshop teaching plans. The focus of the discussion is on how teachers conceptualize their initial writing pedagogy and the adaptation of the genre pedagogy into their teaching context. In the final chapter, Chapter 6, conclusions are made in relation to the findings and the theories used in this study. This chapter also discusses the implications of the overall findings and provides some suggestions for further study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This study investigates how Chinese EFL teachers perceive the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' writing development in CE classes in an EFL tertiary context in China. This chapter reviews the body of literature that informs this research study, focusing on four fundamental areas: Curriculum innovation, CLT, writing pedagogy, and TC. The purpose of reviewing the literature on curriculum innovation and CLT is to examine the gap that exists between the goal of developing students' writing competence as a component of the communicative competence in the national CECR, and the failure of CLT to achieve this goal in China. This is then followed by discussion of the L2 writing pedagogy, specifically examining the assumption that employing the SFL genre pedagogy can effectively help Chinese students to develop their communicative competence, and writing competence in particular. Literature regarding communicative competence and the teaching of English writing throughout the world is thus presented with particular reference to China. Lastly, studies into TC are explored because it is believed that there is a strong relationship between TC and the success of educational innovation. Consequently, this review will fall into the following five sections: Curriculum innovation to develop CLT; CLT as the curriculum mandate; overview of L2 writing pedagogies and their implementations; the relationship between CLT and the genre pedagogy; and TC.

#### **2.2 Curriculum Innovation to Develop CLT**

The implementation of any educational innovation requires adjustments and improvements in at least three components: Materials, teaching approaches and beliefs (Fullan, 2001). Only when changes occur in all three components can a particular educational goal possibly be achieved.

Extensive studies have examined educational innovation from various perspectives (e.g. Carless, 2004; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Iemjinda, 2007; Kelly, 1980; Towndrow, Silver, & Albright, 2010; Underwood, 2012; X. Zheng & Borg, 2014). For example, Carless focused on issues when implementing task-based innovation in primary schools; Iemjinda documented the steps in successful educational change with a subsequent programme for teacher development; and in Underwood's study, the researcher anticipated the impact of national curricula by exploring the teachers' beliefs in integrating grammar with communication-oriented teaching. In the current study, particular interest is focused on the relationship between teachers' perceptions and the SFL genre pedagogy in assisting students to achieve the main goals set out in the CECR. This focus is important because, as Fullan (2001) concluded, change will always result in failure if there is a lack of teacher engagement in developing understanding of new approaches to teaching and learning.

The literature focusing on teachers' beliefs has identified that the mismatches between the main principles underlying curriculum and teachers' beliefs are likely to become the most crucial obstacles to the implementation of educational innovations. Teachers' beliefs are not always consistent with the principles of the curriculum design, due to various obstacles such as contextual factors and teachers' pre-existing beliefs. For example, based on two weeks of classroom observations and subsequent interviews with three teachers, Orafi and Borg's (2008) study in three Libyan secondary schools revealed that the way teachers deliver a new curriculum depends on their views of its feasibility, which is the result of the interaction between teachers' prior beliefs about language teaching and learning, with contextual factors and the curriculum. Thus, educational innovation can be limited when it is inconsistent with teachers' cognition, or when it does not consider the teachers' cognition and the contextual factors of their work. The results of Kirkgöz's (2008) 2-year case study in Turkey showed that the quality of teachers' instructional performance is dependent on the combination of teaching transmission and interpretation, and teachers' understandings of changes. The implementation of any curriculum initiative is shaped by teachers' prior training. Therefore, it is suggested that in order to promote the implementation of

Communicative Oriented Curriculum initiated in any curriculum innovation, continuous teacher training needs to be provided to ensure teachers' understanding of the innovation.

Many researchers worldwide (e.g. Breen, Hird, Milton, & Thwaite, 2001; Cohen & Ball, 2007; Iemjinda, 2007; Levitt, 2001; Priestley, 2011) have proposed that teachers' understanding and belief in the value of innovation is the very foundation of the successful application of that innovation. Researchers in China have also drawn similar conclusions. Wang and Cheng (2005), for instance, undertook a curriculum innovation in their project in a Chinese university. It aimed to investigate the change process, the subsequent challenges to the main stakeholders in the university, and the impact of the innovation on the cultures of teaching. It was argued that the failure of the project was the consequence of the top-down approach for the curriculum innovation, according to which approaching the majority of the teachers was excluded. This 3-year-long study eventually suggested that understanding the complexity of educational innovation required an understanding of the key role that teachers play in the process.

The literature discussed here suggests that the implementation of curricula often does not occur as had been expected because of the mismatches between the innovation principles and teachers' knowledge of the innovation. Fullan (2001) points out that the foundation of innovation achievement is based upon successful changes in teachers' beliefs and knowledge as to why they need to bring something new into their practice. To investigate Chinese EFL teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, it is necessary to have an overview of the current CECR.

### **2.3 CLT as the Curriculum Mandate**

Since the early 1990s, the reform of English language teaching in China has made substantial progress in advocating CLT (L. Yu, 2001) and developing students' overall communicative competence was set up as the mandate of CECR in 2004. Communicative competence refers to the ability of using language in both grammatically and socially appropriate ways in certain contexts. It comprises all the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Since this

notion was put forward by Hymes (1972), there has been increasing discussion about CLT (e.g. Alptekin, 2002; Cazden, 1996; Petkutė, 2010; W. Wu, 2008), and a foreign language teaching approach emphasizing the goal of developing students' communicative competence (Liao, 1997). This approach of CLT was introduced to the Chinese tertiary context from the early 1980s (L. Jin et al., 2005; Rao, 2002) and the recognition of significant progress in applying CLT started from the early 1990s (L. Yu, 2001). The main goal of the current CECR since its trial version launched in 2004, is to develop students' overall communicative competence in line with the purpose of the CLT. However, it is argued that the adoption of the CLT approach has not led to the expected outcomes, but rather to a failure (see Section 1.2.1).

### **2.3.1 CLT and communicative competence**

Hymes (1972) originally introduced the theory of communicative competence in contrast to Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence. Chomsky (1965) views competence as the ability to achieve a grammatically correct performance, whereas Hymes emphasizes competence as a learners' ability to adjust their language use to communicate appropriately in a social context. Since Hymes introduced this theory, the concept of communicative competence has been advanced by many scholars. For example, Canale and Swain (1980) provide a model of communicative competence which is composed of four components, namely linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. In the latest and most comprehensive development of this theory, strategic competence is viewed as an important requirement for all communicative language use in Bachman's (1990) more extended model. Together with the heated discussions about communicative competence are the educators' efforts to develop their students' communicative competence through the application of the CLT approach.

There have been substantial discussions relating to both the positive (e.g. Alptekin, 2002; Cazden, 1996; Liao, 2004; Petkutė, 2010) and negative (e.g. Alptekin, 2002; C. Cai, 2008; Petkutė, 2010) effects of CLT, and the possible barriers to overcome when adopting this approach (e.g. Gupta,

2004; Paulston, 1974; Petkutė, 2010) worldwide since its introduction. For example, Liao (2004) believes that all difficulties can be overcome and CLT is absolutely “best for China” although the adoption of CLT in China faces situational constraints (e.g. large class size & grammar-based tests) (p.270). However, Alptekin (2002) argues that as a native speaker-based notion, the model of communicative language teaching appears to be invalid in cross-cultural settings where English is learned as an international language. There exists strong correlation between the teachers’ communication expertise and the quality of CLT (Petkutė, 2010).

Developing students’ communicative competence, the focus of the CLT approach, has also become the main goal of the current CECR in China, in order to create an English speaking workforce able to support economic growth in an increasingly global world.

### **2.3.2 CLT as the CECR mandate**

In China, developing students’ communicative competence is specifically within the mandate of the current national CECR. However, most researchers state that the application of CLT in China has been a failure (see Section 1.1). In education practice, the terms ‘dumb English’ and ‘deaf English’ have been widely used to describe the existing problems of students’ inability to communicate in English effectively (e.g. Fang, 2010; L. Jin et al., 2005; Liao, 1997; Siemon, 2010), to express themselves and to make themselves understood. However, it is argued that the requirement of developing students’ communicative competence as being fundamental to the CECR has been misinterpreted as referring solely to the development of learners’ listening and speaking skills, while writing competence has been largely ignored, as was mentioned in the Introduction chapter. Some other aspects such as test-driven teaching situations, teacher-centred methods, and large-size classrooms are additional barriers to developing students’ overall communicative competence.

First of all, teachers may misinterpret what constitutes the goal of developing communicative competence in the CECR, which is a barrier to developing students’ writing competence. For

many Chinese educators, CLT is an approach focusing on language functions for oral communication, and thus concerns listening and speaking competence. However, the importance of writing competence, an essential component of communicative competence, is not addressed (L. Jin et al., 2005; W. Wu, 2008). This misinterpretation seems to have directly influenced the implementation of the CLT approach in CE classes. Writing competence is largely ignored in teaching and learning of CE English (L. Jin et al., 2005; T. Li & Wang, 2009; Shao, 2006; Y. Zhang, 2008). It appears then that ensuring Chinese EFL teachers have sufficient understanding of writing competence as a component of communicative competence is critical for supporting their students' learning of writing in CE classes.

Secondly, in the current situation of classrooms, according to which the teaching of writing is driven by the CET (You, 2004b), the CET design fails to consistently reflect the important role of writing competence that is promoted in the CECR. Yang (2005) found that all writing activities and evaluation were targeted for the sake of the CET exam, and the common method of teaching writing in his/her context included a rigid model of 'teachers' instruction', 'students' writing practice' and 'teachers' assessment'. In this sense, teachers' writing instruction, the selection of target genre, the decisions on writing topics, the choices of tasks and activities, were all centred around writing tasks in CETs. Assessment rubrics were also drawn from CET marking criteria. You (2004a) reported signs of adopting western writing pedagogies in CE teaching. However, it was also argued that the focus of writing instruction was still on "correct form" and "test-taking skills", rather than assisting students' writing development in their instruction (p. 97). Although MoE added more complex and broader demands on college students' writing ability in the process of updating the CECR in 1999 (H. Li, 2009), the assessment system of CET has remained unchanged, reflecting an ingrained traditional focus on accurate forms of language use (Fang, 2010). The rigid requirements of CET writing tasks and evaluation criteria seem to be the driving force behind teaching CE writing and evaluating students' writing, because of the high stakes of the CET. Thus, real changes will only take place when significant changes in assessment occur (Torrance, 1996). With the CET prioritized over the curriculum in CE teaching (J. Cai, 2005), the



limitations of writing assessment in the CET have become a key barrier to achieving the communicative competence goal of the CECR.

Thirdly, classroom practice in China still adopts a teacher-centred methodology. This contradicts the mandate to follow a student-centred teaching approach as required in the CLT approach (L. Jin, Singh, & Li, 2005; Liao, 1996). Despite this, English teaching in China is described as being teacher-centered (Rao, 2002; Siemon, 2010; W. Wang & Gao, 2008; Zeng, 2010; Y. Zhang, 2011), thus providing further constraints on the development of students' writing competence. The teacher-centred model has been an inhibiting factor in applying the CLT approach. For example, X. Li (1984) documents the difficulties in adopting a student-centred CLT approach in Chinese contexts. Similarly, in a more recent paper, Fang (2010) argues that inadequate interaction between teachers and students is a major obstacle in developing Chinese students' communicative competence. The points above agree with Liao's (2004) and Siemon's (2010) argument that there is a long way to go before China fully adopts a CLT approach, due to the negative effects from various contextual constraints such as the preference towards highly teacher-centred instruction style. In order to develop students' writing competence in the CE classroom, therefore, Chinese EFL teachers need to confront the barriers of the traditional teacher-centred instruction mode, encourage student engagement in interactions and eventually make the shift to the student-centred teaching model.

Lastly, the shortage of qualified EFL teachers and large class sizes are commonly cited as two inter-related obstacles to implementing the CLT approach in CE classes. Thus the high ratio of students to teacher provides further constraints on the development of students' writing competence. The problems caused by the shortage of qualified EFL teachers are widely discussed in China. For example, some researchers (Du, 2002; You, 2004a; B. Zhang, 2011) assert that the shortage of teachers results in heavy workloads for existing teachers and the lack of time for their professional development. The training opportunities for teachers to develop their writing pedagogies are therefore limited. In Yu's (2001) view, because of the lack of qualified teachers,

quite a few teachers are not equipped with sufficient knowledge for teaching, and accordingly, may not be fully aware of what to teach, let alone how to teach writing effectively.

Directly related to the shortage of qualified EFL teachers is the large class sizes, which is another obstacle affecting the application of the CLT approach. Large class sizes (e.g. typically ranging from 40-60 students in a class) is argued to be a constraint restricting the adoption of the learner-centred teaching style inherent to the CLT approach (Du, 2002; G. Hu, 2002; Siemon, 2010; You, 2004b; L. Yu, 2001) because students have limited opportunities to interact with each other in English. As Zhuang (2007) suggested, the size of the class needs to be considered to ensure students' fair communication opportunities in class.

Although the focus goal of developing students' communicative competence in the current CECR is clearly stated, there are no sufficient instructions as to how to develop students' communicative competence in the CECR (J. Gao & Huang, 2010). Liao (2004) claims that CLT is absolutely "best for China" (p.270) as this adoption is "the Chinese government's position" (p. 270) and all difficulties thus can be conquered. Yet, based on the English teaching in primary and secondary schools, this is the only purely positive voice that has been recognized so far. It seems there may be a long journey ahead to address all of the constraints involved in developing communicative competence as presented above. At this point in time, therefore, most scholars believe that the adoption of CLT in China has been unsuccessful (see Section 1.1). From the perspective of teaching, there is an obvious need to improve teaching methods and teachers' abilities (Du, 2002; G. Hu, 2007; Tian, 2010; You, 2004a) by developing a more adequate understanding of the curriculum (J. Gao & Huang, 2010) in order to achieve this CECR goal.

Considering the obstacles present in developing students' communicative competence in the Chinese tertiary level context, particularly in the field of writing competence, this study has attempted to investigate a writing pedagogy which may be appropriate to support Chinese learners to develop their writing competence.

## **2.4 Overview of L2 Writing Pedagogies and Their Implementation**

There is a significant body of literature in the L2 writing area which covers a number of distinguished approaches to the teaching of English writing. Among them, the ‘product’, ‘process’ and ‘genre’ approaches have become the most popular. Many Chinese researchers have also discussed the effects of these writing theories in the Chinese context. Therefore, based on the overview of these theories, the following section will review the related literature throughout the world with particular reference made to the Chinese tertiary level context.

### **2.4.1 Product approach**

The product approach perceives that teaching writing is mainly concerned with the structure of language use, and considers writing as being primarily about linguistic knowledge, stressing the appropriate use of vocabulary, syntax and cohesive devices. Writing tasks also mostly encourage learners to imitate models of different types of writings, and concentrate on avoiding errors (Hyland, 2003c; Richard, 1985). The teacher plays a primary role as an examiner (Zamel, 1987) to judge the writers’ final writing products. The literature seems to suggest that this approach is no longer widely accepted. By contrast, there are strong arguments that this approach still plays an important role in writing classrooms in China (J. Gao, 2007; Paltridge, 2006; Qian, 2010; Yan, 2010; You, 2004a; Y. Zhang, 2006).

The main criticism of the product approach lies in its ignorance of the complexities of the processes that writers go through to produce a text. For example, the important aspects of text planning and social context in text construction are not considered. Because of the limitations of the product approach, a more helpful pedagogy for Chinese learners needs to be introduced. The process approach is seen as more appropriate for Chinese learners by some other researchers (e.g. T. Li & Wang, 2009; Y. Zhang, 2009).

### **2.4.2 Process approach**

The process approach differs from the product approach as its focus is on the writing as a process of pre-writing, drafting, revising and publishing, rather than simply on the final product. The view that writing is a “non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers discover, and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning” (Zamel, 1983, p.165) is at the heart of the approach. Teachers are the ones who provide students with proper models, guide writing processes and assess writing (Hyland, 2003c; Silva, 1990) through peer collaboration with minimal interference. Researchers in China (T. Li & Wang, 2009; Xiao, 2008; Yang, 2005; Y. Zhang, 2009) also discuss the benefits of the process approach in the Chinese context. Xiao (2008), for example, concludes that in the process approach, students are consciously trained to build up the learning strategies in the stages of the writing process.

However, this approach has been criticized for its ignorance of writing contexts (Badger & White, 2000). Students are restricted in the same set of processes to learn ‘what to write’ and ‘how to write’ (Jordan, 1997). The particular social contexts and the specific communication purposes of constructing texts are not accounted for in the process approach. This limitation of the process approach appears to be in conflict with the goal set in the CECR. As the development of students’ writing competence is a principle mandate of the CECR, Chinese students are expected to understand how to use functional language to achieve social purposes in their text constructions. Thus, the process approach is not a productive approach to cater for Chinese students’ needs while they are learning writing.

### **2.4.3 Genre approach**

Because of the limitations of the product and process approaches, another popular writing theory, the genre approach, needs to be considered. The genre approach views writing as a social and cultural activity in particular contexts for particular communicative purposes. Both teaching and teaching expectations are made explicit. To some extent, the genre approach appears to integrate

both the product and the process approaches. The genre approach is an extension of the product approach with the same predominant emphasis on linguistic knowledge (Badger & White, 2000). However, different from the idea of learning from the ‘assisted imitation’ in the product approach (Pincas, 1982), the purpose of Modelling in the genre approach is to promote students’ understanding regarding the necessities of responding to other writings of the same text type (Martin, 2006). Giving considerable recognition to peer interaction in genre writing instruction (Hyland, 2007) is one of the most important principles of the process approach in which writing is learned through many activities with peers (Susser, 1994). Yet teachers in the genre approach make more flexible decisions in the learning stages, which are directly based on learners’ needs (Martin, 1999). The students are not restricted to the same set of processes as they would be in the process approach (Badger & White, 2000).

In China, the teaching of writing remains very traditional (Martin & Rose, 2007). There is an increasing body of literature on the potential usefulness of the genre theory in teaching writing to Chinese EFL students. It is generally accepted that the genre approach is helpful to support Chinese students’ writing development, verified in papers published in English (e.g. Ji, 2009; Na, n.d.; Tian, 2010; C. Wang, 2013; Zhou, 2009) as well as in Chinese (e.g. Fu, 2014; He & Wei, 2012; Wang & Li, 2012). However, most of the discussions are theoretical. For instance, Ji (2009) introduced a curriculum package for teaching factual writing which is designed on the genre approach. Without actual classroom implementation, Ji then drew the conclusion that the genre approach is beneficial in helping students’ learning of structure and language features. Similarly, Fu (2014) concluded that the genre-based pedagogy had outstanding advantages compared with the traditional teaching methods, and therefore, it is valuable to apply it when teaching English to Chinese learners. However, Fu’s conclusion was drawn on analysing the mode of the teaching-learning cycle and the benefits in the genre pedagogy rather than from real applications in actual teaching practice. In other words, the benefits reported are only the hypothesis resulted from Ji’s theoretical analysis of the genre approach. This limitation is commonly reflected in most of the literature on the genre approach in the Chinese EFL context. To date, very little literature (e.g.

Tian, 2010; C. Wang, 2013) has been found to report on systematic implementation of the genre approach in real classroom teaching.

There are currently three most recognized genre theories which have been developed and applied to diverse classroom contexts worldwide (Hyon, 1996). The genre theories include English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990), North American New Rhetoric (Bazerman, 1988; Miller, 1984) and Australian SFL (Derewianka, 1990; Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Martin, 1997). Although all three traditions of the genre approach emphasize the appropriate use of meaningful language for situational communicative purposes in professional and academic contexts (Hyon, 1996), researchers have distinguished them from various influences such as the types of learners (e.g. native or non-native), writing purposes (e.g. academic or professional) and teaching focus (e.g. forms or meaning-making).

The key differences lie in the extent to which they focus on the linguistic forms and language functions when producing texts (Kress, 1993). Researchers in ESP regard genre as a tool to teach language to non-native speakers (Flowerdew, 1993; Swales, 1990). Attention in ESP is paid to the “formal, staged qualities of genres”, but detailed pedagogical instruction for genres is missing (Hyon, 1996, p.701). New Rhetoric differs from ESP in having placed emphasis on the situational contexts of genres in L1 teaching (Miller, 1984) rather than on the linguistic forms. In SFL, genre is defined as “staged, goal-oriented social processes” (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987, p.59). Of all the three genre theories, the SFL genre approach is not only concerned with how language functions to achieve our social purposes (Derewianka, 1990; Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Martin, 1997), but also emphasizes explicit instruction of genre knowledge (Martin & Rose, 2007). Moreover, relatively more discussions exist on how to successfully implement the SFL genre approach into the classroom (Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, & Gerot, 1992; Hyon, 1996).” Consequently, the SFL genre approach was employed in the present study for the following three major reasons. Firstly, of the three genre schools, “the educational impact of the genre is most readily measured in systemic functional contexts” (Hyon, 1996, p.710). The SFL genre approach

impacts most obviously on teaching writing (Wells, 1999). Secondly, there have been increasing discussions about its effectiveness in non-native English speaking contexts. Its model of text in context embraces contexts, schematic text structure and linguistic features which are oriented to support students' writing development. However, discussions on the genre pedagogy in the Chinese context seemed to be mainly conceptual and rarely considered teachers' perceptions. And thirdly, "classroom applications of genre are an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching" (Hyland, 2007, p.150). All four language skills are integrated to have discussion of their "cultural context, staging and linguistic features" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p.72). Thus, employing this SFL genre pedagogy to teach writing to Chinese students is beneficial to students' writing development, as well as to the improvement of their overall communicative competence, which is set as the main goal of the national CECR.

#### **2.4.4 SFL genre pedagogy**

Researchers have promoted several instructional frameworks to implement the SFL genre approach. The model from Sydney's Disadvantaged Schools Program (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988) has become the most widely recognized instructional framework, and was developed from the notion of "guidance through interaction in the context of shared experience" in the SFL genre approach (Martin, 1999, p.126). In this model, a teaching-learning cycle including Modelling, Joint Negotiation of a Text and Independent Construction of a Text is mapped to describe the process of genre instruction in many contexts. Originally designed for native English-speaking children and adult immigrants, this Australian genre pedagogy has been increasingly discussed in terms of its effects when being implemented in non-native English speaking contexts (e.g. Agustien, 2006; Chaisiri, 2010b; Lin, 2006; Myskow & Gordon, 2009).

Most researchers assert that the SFL genre pedagogy has many merits and could be applied most readily. For example, in an Indonesian tertiary level context, Emilia's (2005) case study revealed that the adoption of the genre approach in her 11-week program was most significantly successful in achieving enhanced control of a target Argumentative Genre. This approach was also highly

valued for teaching Argumentative writing in Rozimela's (2005) study, especially from the perspective of giving students a sense of the structure of the target genre and developing their arguments. Positive results also can be found in case studies (Kongpetch, 2006; Krisnachinda, 2006) and in mixed methods studies (Chaisiri, 2010a, 2010b) conducted in Thailand, and also in case studies conducted in Japan (Myskow & Gordon, 2009).

Although most of the above studies employ a case study approach to explore the potential of the genre pedagogy, and do so via programs in tertiary level contexts over a similar time period (8-12 weeks), they have different foci. Emilia (2005) has particular interest in the values of developing students' critical thinking and the interactive curriculum, while Rozimela (2005) is concerned more about teachers' and students' perceptions regarding this pedagogy in the teaching of Argumentative writing. Krisnachinda (2006) pays attention to students' attitudes, however, her study was based on the teaching of the Recount Genre. Kongpetch (2006) designed a teaching unit and was involved in teaching it as 'the participant as a researcher', when the pedagogy was implemented for teaching Exposition. Kongpetch's particular interest lies in exploring the teachers' perceptions of the pedagogy and its related implementation consequences. This confirms Chaisiri's (2010a, 2010b) research focus on teachers' perceptions and concepts with regard to their current writing approaches and the consequences of implementing the genre approach. Myskow and Gordon's (2009) study is the only one conducted in a high school context. The genre approach was employed to develop learners' understanding of the relationships between texts and social contexts when producing written texts.

There are a number of studies investigating the SFL genre pedagogy in the Chinese context and the researchers seem to advocate the approach. These studies, however, are mainly conceptual and not empirically researched. For example, Ji (2009) designed a curriculum package focusing on teaching of factual writing (Recount, Information report, Explanation, Instruction, Exposition and Narrative) to 30 university students as a one-semester writing course. Three lessons were allocated for the teaching of each genre: Two lessons concentrated on generic structure and the linguistic



features of each genre; in the third lesson, students constructed a text of the same genre jointly and then individually. It is argued that the SFL genre pedagogy makes the purpose, structure and the language features of different genres explicit to students, which is more likely to improve students' abilities in independent writing. However, this conclusion about the effectiveness of the genre pedagogy is drawn from Ji's belief rather than from real implementation teaching practices.

Two studies have so far been found which apply the SFL genre pedagogy in a Chinese context, and are therefore worth noting. One study by Tian (2010) employed specific perspectives in which writing is taught through reading assisted by a blackboard learning system<sup>5</sup>. Tian suggested some procedures for implementing the teaching-learning cycle to teach the Narrative Genre in a tertiary context, and then stated that this pedagogy is a beneficial tool to assist students to achieve learning efficiency. Nevertheless, the recommendations Tian made were based on her own observations. There was no systematic documentation of what worked and what did not work.

The other study which applied the SFL genre pedagogy in a Chinese context was conducted by C. Wang (2013), focusing on the value of this pedagogy in promoting Chinese EFL students' genre awareness and writing competence. In this 16-week long mix-method research study, two classes of CE students participated in an optional course to learn practical English writing and were randomly set as the control group and the experiment group respectively. Collected data included students' pre- and post- writing products, questionnaire, and interviews. The research findings indicated that the genre pedagogy is beneficial for Chinese students in enhancing genre awareness, integral writing quality and lexical density. The current study has a research interest similar to that of Wang's study, examining the potential of the genre pedagogy. It is hoped that the findings of the present study could enrich Wang's research findings in several aspects, such as focusing on teachers' perceptions and in normal CE classes.

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<sup>5</sup> "The Blackboard System is a Web-based server software platform. Its main purposes are to add online elements to courses traditionally delivered face-to-face and to develop completely online courses with few or no face-to-face meetings" (Tian, 2010, p.602).

Rather than being on the basis of systematic implementation, some studies have been devoted to particular elements of the SFL genre pedagogy in the Chinese context. For instance, Zhang (2006) conducted a study focusing on ‘writing conferences’ as writing instruction. The result from the survey of 30 college students indicates that the ‘writing conference’ is especially effective in large-size classroom situations. Similarly, in Zhao’s (2010) study, attention was paid to the different effects that teachers’ feedback has compared to the effects peers’ feedback provides. Moreover, developing students’ understanding of teachers’ feedback was also regarded as important in Zhao’s study.

To sum up, the literature concerning the Chinese contexts has clearly identified the existing problems with teachers, contextual factors (assessment and class size), and teaching style: Teachers’ lack of training and misconception of the CECR; test-oriented teaching in large-size classroom situations and the adoption of traditional teacher-centred methods. The L2 writing theories have also been examined in-depth. However, the studies reviewed here do not actually operationalize a theory in a systematic way in a classroom context. In contrast, as discussed earlier in this section, the application of the genre pedagogy has blossomed and resulted in success in many other non-native English speaking contexts. In relation to the need for clear instruction for the teaching of English writing in the Chinese tertiary level context, it is concluded that this sound framework might also be suitable for assisting Chinese EFL students to develop their writing competence.

## **2.5 CLT and SFL genre pedagogy**

Viewing the theories of CLT and the implementation framework of the SFL genre pedagogy in diverse classroom contexts around the world, it is argued in this study that applying the genre pedagogy will help Chinese learners develop their writing competence as well as the other language skills. Consequently, this pedagogy could support Chinese learners to develop their overall communicative competence to achieve the goal of the national CECR.

Comparisons of the CLT and the SFL genre pedagogy show quite a few similarities between these two theories of language learning. Both approaches concern appropriate communication in social and cultural contexts and emphasize interactions (e.g. group and pair work with peers and conversation with teachers) in classroom teaching. Adopting activities in small groups is one typical characteristic of CLT (C. Cai, 2008; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Rao, 2002). Likewise, group work is frequently used in the teaching-learning cycle, which is widely accepted as the implementation model of the SFL genre pedagogy (Hyland, 2007). In addition, applying the genre pedagogy to teaching writing can integrate the other three language skills to stimulate language development. Hyland (2007) stresses that classroom applications of genre pedagogy are “an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching” in which language plays the role as a tool for learners’ goal achievement in context (p. 150). Communicative activities can train all the four skills (Liao, 1997, p.20) and may help to encourage students to explore the genre pedagogy by reflecting on writing practices and develop students’ ideas for their genre writing (Paltridge, 2001). To conclude, this genre approach of teaching and learning fits well with CLT as “it provides teachers and learners with a means of exploring language use within a framework of cultural and social purpose” (Burns, 2001, p.200).

In the Chinese context, where the implementation of the CLT has been seen to be a failure in achieving the CECR goal, particularly with regard to teaching writing competence (see Section 2.3.2), the genre approach also has drawn considerable attention from educators. Nevertheless, what is missing in the literature are discussions that relate to teachers’ perceptions of the effectiveness of this pedagogy when instructing writing is oriented by this pedagogy. The inter-relationship between the concepts of CLT and the genre pedagogy, as discussed above, signals that teaching CE with the genre pedagogy can be useful for Chinese students to develop both their writing ability and the other three language competencies to achieve the goal of the CECR.

However, the key to successful educational innovation is teachers’ implementation of the changes (e.g. curriculum changes & pedagogical changes) in their classrooms. Previous studies (e.g. Breen

et al., 2001; Orafi & Borg, 2008) identified the inter-relationships between teachers' cognition and successful educational innovation. As Breen et al. (2001) argued, "Any innovation in classroom practice - from the adoption of a new technique or textbook to the implementation of a new curriculum - has to be accommodated within the teacher's own framework of teaching principles" (pp.471-472). As a consequence, in order to better understand the relationships between teachers' actual classroom practices and the intended innovation, the following section discusses the notion of TC.

## **2.6 Teacher Cognition**

In the past two decades, there has been increasing interest in the study of TC and its relationship with teachers' classroom practices (Baker, 2014; Barnard & Burns, 2012; Borg, 2003; Flower & Hayes, 1981; Shi & Cumming, 1995; Shulman, 1986). The term TC is defined as "what teachers know, believe and think" (Borg, 2003, p.81) and concerns how teachers' beliefs and knowledge guide their thinking and classroom teaching behaviours. It serves as an umbrella term encompassing several constructs including knowledge (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Clandinin, 1985; Elbaz, 1991; Fenstermacher, 1994; Freeman, 2002; Grossman, 1995; Shulman, 1986; Tamir, 1991), beliefs (e.g. Basturkmen, 2012; Calderhead, 1996; Diab, 2005; Graden, 1996; Johnson, 1992; Judson, 2006; Khader, 2012; Nespor, 1987; Richardson, 1996; Underwood, 2012), thinking (e.g. Clark & Yinger, 1977; Freeman, 1993), attitudes (e.g. Richardson, 1996), conceptions (e.g. L. Jin et al., 2005) and so forth. Instead of looking at the separate components of TC listed above, an increasing number of studies (e.g. Baker, 2014; Borg, 2003; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) are starting to include all of these terms under a single umbrella term of TC, owing to the difficulty involved in teasing apart those cognition components. This broad definition of 'cognition', which refers to a wide range of concepts including knowledge, attitude, beliefs, conceptions, perceptions, and understanding, is followed in the present study.

Keeping in mind the research purpose, this section starts with a discussion on the relationships between teachers' cognition and classroom practice. Then, those factors which influence teachers' cognition are examined.

### **2.6.1 Teachers' cognition and classroom practices**

It is generally accepted that what teachers believe drives their classroom practices (Richardson, 1996). Researchers have been investigating how teachers' cognitive process is inferred in their teaching practices by comparing 'what teachers claim' with their actual behaviours in classroom teaching. Quite a few studies (e.g. Baker, 2011; Borg, 1998; S. Borg, 2001; Breen et al., 2001; Cundale, 2001; Graden, 1996; Rahimi, 2014; F. Zhang & Liu, 2013) discuss the relationships between teachers' beliefs and their actual teaching practices. Both consistent and inconsistent relationships have been found between them.

Some researchers argue that how teachers behave and act in the classroom is congruent with their beliefs. For example, in Johnson's (1992) study, a Multi-dimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile was created to examine the extent to which teachers' instructional practices are consistent with their beliefs. Results showed that the majority of the teachers among 30 ESL participants followed classroom behaviours that were consistent with their theoretical beliefs regarding literacy instruction. In Kim's (2006) research conducted in the U.S., a similar conclusion was also drawn. In that study, most of the teachers' stated beliefs about writing instruction were represented in their classroom teaching practices. Similarly, in their recent paper about EFL writing instruction in a Chinese university context, Yang and Gao (2013) reported that when implementing a writing program into practice, all of the four teacher participants perceived that they integrated elements of product and process approaches in their writing instruction. Most of the teachers (three out of four) showed consistency between their stated beliefs and teaching practices.

However, there seems to be relatively more studies demonstrating the inconsistency or partial consistency between teachers' beliefs and their actual classroom practices. Graden (1996) found that inconsistencies existed when examining six secondary EFL teachers' beliefs and their reading instructions. Likewise, Hedrick, Harmon and Linerode (2004) revealed that while survey results indicated that all teachers held many beliefs about vocabulary and practices in common, observational findings showed limited consistency in teaching practices due to the effects of grade levels, economic status or teachers' teaching experience. Furthermore, according to Farrell and Lim's (2005) research findings, while one teacher participant's teaching practice was strongly congruent with the stated beliefs of his/her explicit instruction on grammar, another teacher's belief in indirect instruction only partially matched with his/her actual classroom practices. Possible reasons to explain these divergences included the time factors, teachers' reverence for traditional grammar instructions and the impact of teachers' pre-existing beliefs regarding grammar instructions. In addition, based on the comparison of results between 32 teachers' classroom practices and their beliefs indicated in their response to survey questions, Judson (2006) concluded that there were no substantial relationships between teachers' instructional statements about the application of integrating technology and their actual classroom behaviours. It was suggested that the lack of correlation resulted from the varying degrees of teachers' expertise in technology as experts, advanced beginners and novices. Similarly, Khader's (2012) research in social studies drew the conclusion that there was no evidence that teachers' beliefs correlated with their classroom practices. Overcrowded classrooms, teachers' busy schedules and the lack of training in applying the pedagogical beliefs were pointed out as possible barriers leading to the inconsistent relationships.

Researchers have been trying to explain the inconsistency between teachers' stated beliefs and their teaching practices. As is the case with some of the research findings above, some researchers (e.g. Johnson, 1992; Khader, 2012) noted that the complexities of classroom life can hinder teachers' abilities to provide instruction which is congruent with their beliefs. Besides, teachers' own experience as learners and their professional training also strongly impact classroom practices

(Borg, 2003, 2006). Therefore, in order to understand the potential inconsistency between teacher participants' stated beliefs and their teaching practices, it is not only essential to understand the relationships between TC and teaching practices. It is also necessary to learn about the impact of contextual factors and factors of teachers' educational experiences on TC.

### **2.6.2 Teacher cognition and contextual factors**

Although teachers' cognition exerts a powerful influence on teaching practices, classroom practices are also shaped by a wide range of contextual factors. Contextual factors can strongly influence teachers' beliefs and thus affect teachers' classroom practices. Borg (1998, 2003) points out that teachers' classroom practices are shaped by "the social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom" (Borg, 2003, p.94). Borg's comment suggests the powerful role of the complex contextual factors on the construction of TC.

Some studies on TC have reported a remarkable impact of contextual factors on teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. For instance, Faour's (2003) investigation on Lebanese early childhood teachers' beliefs and practices found that teachers' beliefs and teaching practices differed significantly as a result of variables such as the schools' socio-economic status, class sizes and grade levels that teachers teach. In a study of beliefs on teachers' vocabulary instruction, Hedrick et al. (2004) drew similar conclusions. Teachers' practices were inconsistent with their instructional belief because of the impact of grade levels, economic status or teachers' teaching experience. Similarly, Khader's (2012) study on teachers' pedagogical beliefs concerning social studies showed that there was no significant correlation between teachers' beliefs and their teaching practices. Instead, it is evident that contextual factors, such as overcrowded classrooms and teachers' overloaded schedules, hindered teachers from transferring their beliefs into teaching practices. Gerami and Noordin (2013) explain that Iranian EFL teachers possess "real beliefs" and "modified beliefs" of vocabulary teaching (p. 1540). While real beliefs represent teachers' actual cognition, these beliefs are often modified in real teaching practice resulting from the challenges from the educational system or the contextual factors.

From the perspective of English teaching in China, some contextual factors (e.g. the national curriculum, society, teachers' workloads, the assessment system, large sized classrooms, availability of materials and so forth) have been repeatedly pointed out as having crucial influences on Chinese EFL teachers' cognition and teaching practices in previous studies (e.g. Du, 2002; L. Gao, 2007; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Peng, 2011; W. Wang & Gao, 2008; Y. Wu, 2001; Xu, 2010; L. Yu, 2001; Y. Zhang, 2011). You (2004a), for example, revealed that because of their low incomes, CE teachers have to work extra hours rather than spending time on professional development. Hence, the adoption of CE writing instruction is "the choice made from no choice" since the predominant concern of teaching is guided by the nationally unified CECR and CET system (p.97). Although there are some studies on the existing problems of language teaching in China, the area of Chinese teacher cognition about teaching writing within a western writing pedagogy is largely unexplored.

### **2.6.3 Teacher cognition and teachers' educational experience**

Apart from discussing the crucial impact of contextual factors on TC, Borg (1998, 2003, 2006) also asserts the powerful influences of teachers' educational experience, namely their 'schooling' and 'professional coursework', on the potential changes in teachers' cognition about language teaching.

As with Borg's study, previous studies revealed that a teacher's own schooling experience has a strong impact on their teaching practices. For example, in Farrell and Lim's (2005) case study regarding teachers' cognition about grammar teaching, Daphne (a teacher participant) firmly believed that students were able to benefit from her explicit instruction since she herself had benefited from a similar learning experience. Her actual teaching practices were observed to be consistent with her statements. Orafi and Borg's (2008) finding in a latter study is in alignment with the argument from Farrell and Lim. Based on an examination of three Libyan teachers' implementations of a new curriculum, they argued that it was the pre-existing traditional view of the teachers' role that prevented the adoption of communicative curriculum reform. Some



teachers were accustomed to playing the dominant role in the classroom. This teacher-centred teaching style conflicted with the curriculum requirement, according to which teachers are expected to be facilitators or guides in the classroom. Munby (1982) argued that teachers' principles fix more firmly as their teaching experiences increase. In this sense, probably because those teachers in the above two studies had experienced learning with explicit instruction (Daphne) and teacher-dominated classroom culture (teachers in Orafi and Borg's study), they strongly believed in the benefits of explicit instruction, and accepted the teacher's dominant role as common practice.

Another important influence on teaching practice is the impact of teachers' professional training on TC. For instance, with reference to grammar teaching, S. Borg (2001) explored teachers' self-perception and practice through interviews and observations. He pointed out that to develop and sustain teachers' awareness of knowledge about language, its development should be set as an important goal for teacher education and development programs. In a more recent study, Baker (2011) revealed the significant effect of pedagogical training on TC in relation to teaching pronunciation. Similarly to S. Borg's finding, her study identified the strong impact of professional training on teachers' pedagogy as well as on their confidence, and additionally, the importance of teachers' learning, teaching experiences and collaborative work with their colleagues was highlighted.

With similar research interest into the impact of teacher education on teaching practice, however, Burns and Knox (2005) found in their exploratory and interpretive study that the decisions teachers made on what and how to teach in classroom practice was "dynamic and context-dependent" (p. 255). Through classroom observation, Burns and Knox investigated the extent to which their two former Master students applied theoretical knowledge (which they learned as part of their Masters coursework) into their teaching practice. The research findings revealed that although it was evident that the teachers had developed their content knowledge about the SFL genre pedagogy as part of their Master's study, there existed considerable contextual barriers to

using this pedagogy in their classroom teaching. Burns and Knox suggest that applying SFL genre pedagogy needs to be based on a problem-based approach requiring explicit exploration of the specific teaching contexts. In other words, while the impact of professional trainings on the development of TC is significant, whether and how teachers apply such newly obtained knowledge into teaching practice is largely affected by complex contextual factors.

As the only study to date on teachers' TC about the SFL genre pedagogy, Burns and Knox's was particularly relevant to the current study. However, the study focused on the impact of pre-service teachers' knowledge of SFL genre pedagogy in their teaching practice. In the current study, particular attention was paid to in-service teachers' TC about the genre pedagogy after the professional training workshops.

The arguments about the impact of professional training above support Borg (2003) who stresses that the nature of this impact varies across studies and even within the same study, which is also agreed by other researchers. For instance, in Almarze's (1996) study, based on the training of four student teachers in a particular teaching method, the findings indicated that teacher education impacted more significantly on the trainees' teaching practice than on their cognition. Although the trainees were observed to have applied the new teaching method in their teaching practices, there was no evidence of relevant changes from their statements. This result was partially in contrast with Freeman's (1993) finding in an earlier study. In this longitudinal study on four foreign language teachers who were undertaking an in-service master degree, Freeman discovered that the training program had an obvious impact on TC. When implementing the program in their teaching practice, though there were some changes, they were not substantial. The different findings in these two studies above provided some insight into the way that the professional trainings may be related to TC and teaching practices.

Various researchers (e.g. Hird, 1995; W. Wang & Gao, 2008; Y. Wu, 2001) have also found that teachers' knowledge and learning experiences have a strong impact on successful English teaching in China, and advocate teacher training and the development of effective teacher

education programs. Teacher training is frequently strongly recommended in the conclusion section of research studies (e.g. Du, 2002; J. Gao & Huang, 2010; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Lam, 2002; T. Wang, 2007; Xu, 2010; L. Yu, 2001). Du (2002) argues that teachers are the most important resource in CE teaching. In line with Du's argument, T. Wang (2007) in a qualitative study involving CE teaching, highlights that schools should create opportunities for the purpose of teachers' professional training. In T. Wang's view, it is trained and willing teachers who are able to achieve successful implementation of new strategies to achieve their teaching goals. However, W. Wang and Gao's (2008) review of 81 selected research papers indicated that almost no studies (3 out of 81) have explored teacher development. In fact, research focusing on the relationship between teacher learning, teaching practice and TC seems to be even more limited (Baker, 2011). Therefore, as the current study is based on a teacher training program (notably training in the SFL genre pedagogy), this study might not only be able to explore how Chinese EFL teachers conceptualize the adaptation of a western L2 writing pedagogy in their tertiary context, but could also offer some implications for the development of teacher training programs.

## **2.7 Summary of the Chapter**

This study aimed to investigate how Chinese EFL teachers perceive the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' writing development in CE classes. Relevant literature reviewed in this chapter includes the four primary areas of curriculum innovation, CLT, writing pedagogy, and TC.

The instructional plans for teaching CE writing were designed on the SFL genre pedagogy in the current study due to its potential benefits in developing Chinese EFL students' communicative competence as the mandate of CECR. CLT has been advocated as the main goal of the national curriculum since the trial version of the current CECR was released in 2004. Accordingly, to develop students' overall communicative competence is the main goal of CE teaching. However, there are no specifications for instruction in supporting students' achievement of the goal in the CECR. The traditional teacher-centred, test-driven situation still largely remains unchanged in CE

classroom teaching. Most scholars believe that the adoption of the CLT approach in China is a failure and the application of CLT to CE teaching is not an exception. In particular, students' writing competence as a component of communicative competence has drawn very limited attention in CE teaching. The teaching of writing remains very traditional (Martin & Rose, 2007) and there is an urgent need to improve teaching methods and teachers' abilities. The SFL genre pedagogy seems to be a promising writing instruction to assist Chinese students' writing development in CE classroom teaching. This is because the genre pedagogy has been proved to be successful in many EFL contexts. Moreover, this pedagogy overlaps with CLT in many aspects including their mutual goals, and with more specific methods in detail.

To achieve the success of any educational innovation relies on teachers' beliefs in the changes. There has been increasing attention paid to TC in the mainstream of educational research in the last few decades. It is generally accepted that what teachers know and believe guides their thinking and shapes classroom teaching practices (Richardson, 1996). The main influences impacting TC include teachers' schooling, educational experience, classroom practices, and complex contextual factors (Borg, 2003). Discussion of TC in Chinese contexts has become popular in recent years. However, no TC study to date has been found to focus on the application of a particular writing pedagogy. Considering the key role that teachers' beliefs play in pedagogical decisions, applying the SFL genre pedagogy will require a change in Chinese teachers' beliefs and knowledge for it to be successful.

As a consequence of the failure of the CLT situation in China, the apparent advantages of SFL genre pedagogy, and the powerful role of TC in applying educational innovations, this research sought to investigate how Chinese EFL teachers perceived the potential of the genre pedagogy in developing learners' writing competence when it was introduced as writing instruction in a Chinese tertiary level context. The following chapter will focus on the analytical tools applied in this research study.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

Chapter 2 explored the background literature and introduced the research purpose of the current study. It concluded that to assist Chinese EFL students' writing development as a major goal of the current CECR, the genre pedagogy in SFL seemed to be promising because its effectiveness had been proved extensively in various EFL contexts. However, any successful educational innovation relies on teachers' beliefs in the change (Fullan, 2001). Based on the literature review and research questions, the theoretical framework of the current study comprises multi-stage analytical tools which draw on two major sources: Research on the genre theories in SFL and research on TC. Together, these two theories enabled the investigation of how teacher participants perceived the genre pedagogy in their tertiary contexts.

To illustrate the theoretical framework, this chapter begins with an overview of the three traditions of genre approach. It is followed by the concept of SFL genre approach, along with the SFL genre theories that the pedagogy draws on. The implementation of the SFL genre approach takes the form of the teaching-learning cycle, which is then illustrated. The socio-cultural theory which underpins the cycle is discussed next. The chapter ends with an outline of the construct of TC. In particular, Borg's (2003) model of TC and Shulman's (1986, 1987) model of teacher knowledge are introduced, as they were employed to frame Chinese teacher participants' pedagogical perceptions.

## **3.2 Genre Theories**

To achieve one of the main research purposes, a key theoretical framework that informed the present study was the genre theories. Specifically, this section seeks to introduce the concept of the SFL genre approach, its implementation model of the teaching-learning cycle, and the underpinning socio-cultural theory which informs the design of the current study.

### **3.2.1 SFL genre approach**

The development of the SFL genre approach draws heavily on the work of Halliday (1978), who believed that when using language to make meaning within a culture, language offers a network of alternatives between language forms, functions and social context from which people can choose. Martin and other SFL researchers (e.g. Derewianka, 1990; Martin, Christie, & Rothery, 1987; Martin & Rothery, 1980, 1981) have further developed Halliday's theory and discussed the concept of genre. Genre is defined as 'staged, goal-oriented social processes' (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987). This is because it usually takes us more than one phase to accomplish our social communicative purposes. According to the concept of genre in SFL, appropriate language is chosen for the situational contexts (Martin & Rothery, 1980). In other words, the social purpose of an interaction dictates the type of language used in texts.

#### ***3.2.1.1 Language as a resource for making meaning***

Language is a resource for making meaning in socio-cultural contexts (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, & Yallop, 2009). How language functions in social contexts to achieve communicative purposes is a major consideration in the SFL genre approach (Derewianka, 1990; Halliday, 1994, 2009; Martin, 1997; Matthiessen, 1995). Language is a social semiotic (Eggins, 1994; Halliday, 1985) and learning is a semiotic process of "learning to mean" (Halliday, 1993, p.113). The current study investigates the manner in which teacher participants used functional language to assist their students in the post-workshop teaching practice. The results would reveal teachers' ability to

support students to ‘learn language, learn through language, and learn about language’ (Halliday, 1979/1980).

The study also explored how student participants chose appropriate language to make meaning and achieve the social communicative purposes in their written texts. In any socio-cultural context, language includes three basic functions of *experiential* (the expression of experience), *interpersonal* (the expression of different speaking and writing roles) and *textual* (the means to create coherent texts) (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1985). Language description in SFL is oriented to the functions of linguistic features, and identifying them in analysis is a key step towards connecting texts to their contextual functions (Bartlett & Chen, 2012). As such, analysing the features in students’ written texts is a way to obtain insights into their ability to use functional language to make meaning in different situations.

#### **3.2.1.2 Text and context**

SFL focuses on the close relationship between text and social context (Halliday & Martin, 1993). While a text is a piece of language used in a specific context (Halliday, 1985), context refers to “those elements that accompany a text, giving it meaning” (Christie & Mission, 1998, p.8). What we write and talk about highly depends on the topic and the circumstances (Eggins, 1994). It is through linguistic choices that the three major language functions of experiential, interpersonal and textual in a text can be encoded in different ways. However, what Chinese teachers are predominantly concerned about in teaching writing is language knowledge and test-taking strategies, rather than social communicative purposes (You, 2004a). Hence, as SFL genre theory highlights the importance of language as a resource for meaning making, rather than as a set of rules (Paltridge, 2007), SFL genre theory provided Chinese teachers with a writing conception which seemed to have been a missing element for them.

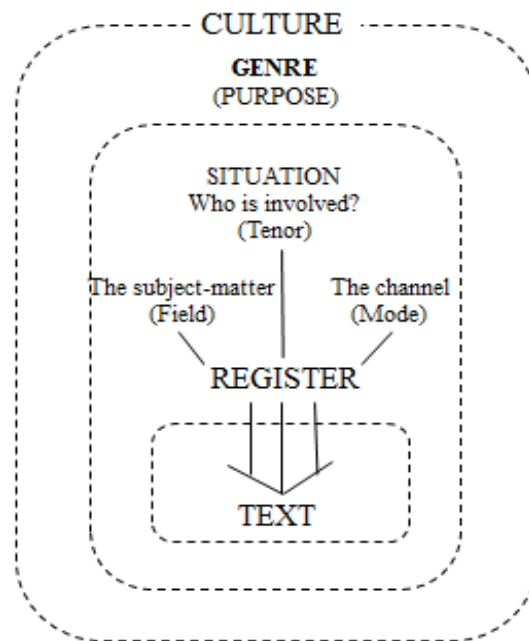


Figure 3.1 Text and Context (Derewianka, 1990, p.19)

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, the social context comprises two inseparable levels of cultural and situational contexts (Martin & Rose, 2003). The cultural context defines the social purpose (or *genre*) and overall structure of the texts (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Derewianka, 1990; Martin & Rothery, 1981). When we create a text to achieve such purposes, we also transmit culture and determine the genre. Accordingly, the social purpose impacts our language choices when we construct meaning within a text. The situational context (or *register*) (Martin & Rothery, 1980) determines the language features. It refers to the “immediate environment” where a text is being constructed for communicative purposes (Halliday, 1985, p.46). The particular situation in which a text presents its meaning shapes the three factors of *field* (what the topic is about), *mode* (the manner of communication) and *tenor* (the relations between the producer and receivers) (Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Halliday, 1975; Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rothery, 1980) and therefore determines the forms of language (Halliday, 1978). The combination of the three contextual features above creates the *register* (Derewianka, 2003; Eggins, 1994).



SFL genre theory is particularly useful in the current study, which aims to investigate teachers' perceptions about the potential of this pedagogy in assisting their students' writing development to achieve the CECR goal as one of the two primary research purposes. First of all, the design of this study was based on the application of the genre pedagogy as a pedagogical change to the Chinese setting. In accordance, this pedagogy was employed to offer students explicit explanations about how to use certain textual structures and linguistic features to construct meaning which is "socially and contextually complete" (Kress, 1993, p.5). Moreover, after having received the training in the genre pedagogy, teacher participants' perceptions of the pedagogy would emerge from their writing instructions. This experience would lead to teachers' more concrete sense of the pedagogy, which would probably be reflected from their statements in the follow-up interviews. Finally, the genre theories provided guidance to identify the possible changes in students' writing products after they had received the intervention of the SFL genre pedagogy. In return, the analysis results could add evidence to indicate the effectiveness of the genre pedagogy. The comparison between the students' two writing outcomes, and the relationship of those outcomes to the changes in their teachers' knowledge about teaching writing and in associated teaching practices, were particularly valuable to research on TC about teaching EFL writing.

Researchers have classified the genres that are most frequently used to achieve various social communicative purposes. Among them, the Discussion Genre is recognized as one of the most popular genres in the teaching of CE writing in China, and was set as the target genre for the intervention program (see more discussion in Chapter 4). Therefore, this genre is specifically discussed in the following section.

### ***3.2.1.3 Discussion Genre***

A number of genres (text types) have been examined in academic and professional settings (e.g. Derewianka, 1990; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2007; Martin & Rothery, 1981; Rose & Martin, 2012). Among them, the Discussion Genre, together with Exposition and Challenge,

are included as categories of Argument texts (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). Argument texts serve to support a viewpoint or to persuade others by using logical reasons in proper text structure. In particular, the Discussion Genre functions to present information and to argue for both sides of a topical issue, concluding with the writer's view based on evidence (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Derewianka, 1990; Derewianka & Jones, 2012). To create a text such as a Discussion Genre text in its specific contexts, choices need to be made in terms of textural features, and this requires semantic unity (Martin & Rothery, 1980).

Callaghan and Knapp (1989) have outlined a few features covering schematic structure and linguistic features to distinguish texts of the Discussion Genre from the others. Schematic structure refers to “the beginning, middle, and end structure of texts” (Martin & Rothery, 1980, p.10). It is “the stages a genre moves through to achieve its social purpose” (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989, p.16). Specifically, it comprises stages of *issue preview*, *arguments for* and *arguments against*, and *recommendation* (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989; Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 2002) as shown in Figure 3.2 below. In the stage of *issue preview*, the issue for discussion is presented. It is followed by a statement of argument points for both sides of the issue, along with elaboration to explain those points with evidence. Finally, a Discussion Genre text ends with *recommendation*.

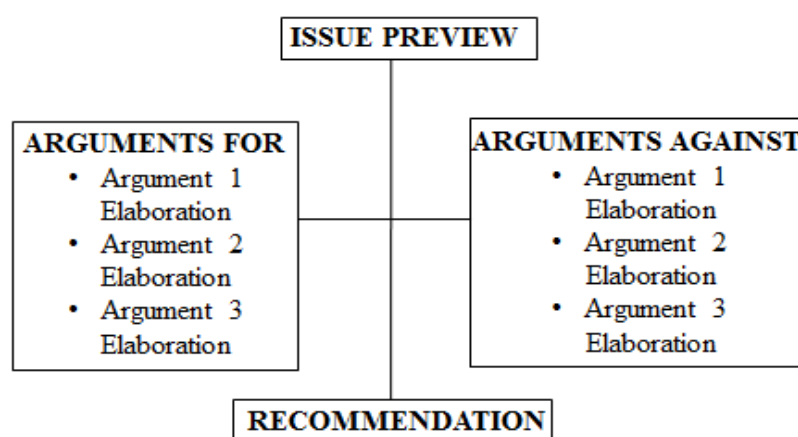


Figure 3.2 Schematic Structure of the Discussion Genre (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989, p.21)

In particular, Martin and Rose (2005b) introduce the term *phase* to describe the way that a genre moves forward in sequences to achieve social purposes by sharing a set of resources. A phase may consist of one or more messages which make up a generic stage. For example, according to the illustration of schematic structure in Figure 3.2, the phase of *argument for* comprises three messages with possible elaborations. The same is true in the opposite side of *argument against* phase. The messages in these two phases work together and finally construct the argument stage. The success of argument stage is closely related to how many messages are included in each phase and how these messages are connected to each other. Consequently, the logic flow in each stage and between stages leads to the success of the final writing product.

The use of linguistic features aims to represent the social and cultural reality which is appropriate to the textual demands of the target genre (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989). In the Discussion Genre, four typical language features combine (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989, p.9) to deliver its meaning on three levels: *Generic human and non-human participants* (experiential meaning: e.g. newspapers & many people); *use of simple present tense* (interpersonal meaning); *use of logical conjunctive relations* (textual meaning: e.g. finally & moreover); and *use of types of verbs* (experiential meaning) including *material* (e.g. give & come), *relational* (e.g. have & are) and *mental* (e.g. think & feel) *processes*.

As the target genre set in the instructional designs of the current study, the textual features of the Discussion Genre discussed above have provided an explicit framework for training, teaching, learning and assessing writing. All features therefore should be focused upon as important content knowledge in both workshop training and intervention teaching. These principles of textual features are especially important for Chinese students in understanding how to choose appropriate language to make meaning in the social contexts of the Discussion Genre. Eventually, explicit instruction of these linguistic features aimed to assist students to achieve successful control of the Discussion Genre. Subsequently, these features were employed in combination with certain

structural features (see discussion earlier in this section) as the analytical framework to judge student participants' writing products.

In addition to the basic SFL genre principles, to introduce the genre approach into a Chinese tertiary context requires teacher participants' sound knowledge of its implementation framework. Researchers in SFL have developed a number of models to implement the principles of the SFL approach based on different goals and educational contexts, and the teaching-learning cycle model has become one of the most popular. The section below discusses this in detail.

### **3.2.2 The teaching-learning cycle as the implementation model**

Underpinned by the SFL theories of language learning and teaching, the genre approach is implemented in the form of a teaching-learning/curriculum cycle or "the figure of a wheel" in classroom teaching (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993, p.10). In China, where the models of language that are used in teaching literacy remains very traditional (Martin & Rose, 2007), this model provided teachers with a concrete guidance for implementing the SFL genre approach, covering both before-class design and in-class support. Originating from the project in Sydney's Disadvantaged Schools Program (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988), this instructional model comprises three processes of Modelling, Joint Negotiation of Text, and Independent Construction of Text. Since then, there have been various interpretations of the model for classroom practice (e.g. Callaghan & Knapp, 1989; Derewianka, 1990; Feez, 1999; Hammond et al., 1992; Martin & Rothery, 1991; Rothery, 1994). Rothery's interpretation reflects the main typical stages in which three phases of Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction are outlined as a cycle (see Figure 3.3). As a revised version, the segments of 'building field' and 'setting context' are added to develop students' knowledge of the content and the social purpose of the genre (Hammond et al., 1992). The teaching-learning cycle is marked by explicit instruction (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Hyland, 2007; Martin, 2000) and flexibility (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988). Learning through guidance and interaction in the context of shared experience is the fundamental notion of the cycle (Derewianka, 2003; Halliday, 1975; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin, 1999).

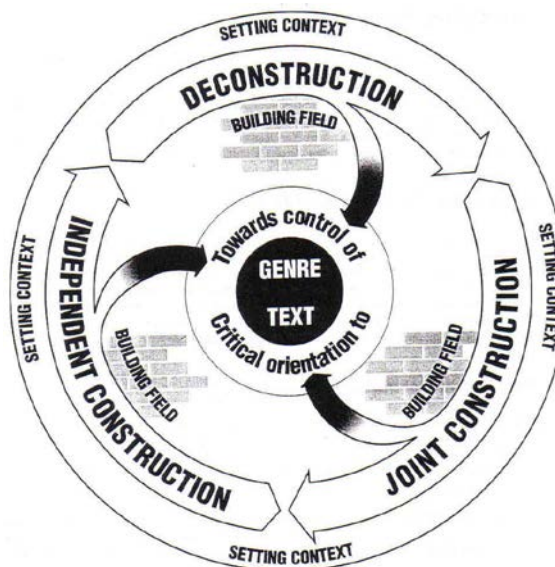


Figure 3.3 The Teaching-Learning Model (Rothery, 1994, p.8)

The ultimate goal of the teaching-learning cycle is to support students to grasp the target genre through staged processes with guided interactions. The stage of Deconstruction in the cycle consists of two key elements: Showing students models of target genre (text type) and developing their familiarity with the genre through written and spoken activities (Feez, 1998). All four language skills are integrated here to develop students' understanding of "cultural context, staging and linguistic features" of the genre (Martin & Rose, 2007, p.72). The teacher acts as an expert (Feez, 1999) and encourages students to deconstruct various features in model texts with task-based guideline questions. In the Joint Construction stage, students are invited to collaboratively construct a new text of the same genre by sharing experiences with peers in various interaction activities. The teacher plays the role of an advisor and editor (Feez, 1999). Finally, students have developed their control of the genre and produce a new text on their own in the Independent Construction stage, where the teacher withdraws support.

### **3.2.3 Socio-cultural theory**

Underpinning the teacher-learning cycle of the SFL genre approach to teach writing is the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and the associated notion of scaffolding (Derewianka, 2003; Hyland, 2003a, 2007; Lin, 2006; Martin, 1999). Socio-cultural theory emphasizes the role of social interactions in teaching and learning.

#### ***3.2.3.1 Social interactions***

The fundamental role of social interactions in the development of cognition is the major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework (1978). Language is viewed as the most important mediational means during interactions, which contributes to the learners' understanding of the world (Wells, 2007). Similarly, Hammond cites Reddy's metaphor and explains that language is a 'conduit' (Reddy, 1979) "enabling the transfer of information, ideas and feelings from one individual to another" (Hammond, 2001, p.16). Many researchers have argued that language learning through interacting with teachers or/and peers is one of the most highly effective methods (Gibbons, 2003; Hammond & Gibbons, 2001; Lantolf, 2000; Martin, 1999, 2006; Martin & Rose, 2005a; van Lier, 2004) and some particularly emphasize 'learning through talking' (e.g. Allright, 1984; Ellis, 1994; Halliday, 1993; Swain, 2000; Well & Chang-Wells, 1992). Interacting based on a series of conversational moves is not only the learners' aim but also "the actual means of learning" (Cook, 1996, p.61).

#### ***3.2.3.2 ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) and scaffolding***

ZPD and scaffolding are two inter-related key concepts from Vygotskian socio-cultural theory. ZPD refers to the distance between what learners can do independently and what they are capable of doing with the help of more competent others. It is the effective engagement in forms of social interaction by using language as a psycho-social tool that leads to the full development of the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). The concept of 'scaffolding' is interpreted by Bruner and his colleagues as a

metaphor to describe the nature of support offered to a learner when he/she is fulfilling a task within his/her ZPD (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Scaffolding is originally defined as the assistance provided by a more capable adult when a task is beyond a child's capacity (Wells, 1999). The assistance of scaffolding in ZPD is 'temporary' and can be designed by teachers in advance (Mercer, 1994). Teachers need to modify scaffolded assistance for individual learners in specific situations (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001; van Lier, 1996, 2004). This is because interactions within the learner's ZPD are the most effective (Stone, 1998; Verenikina, 2008).

Sharing the genre knowledge of promoted scaffolding and interaction with peers is a typical characteristic of the teaching-learning cycle (Hyland, 2003a; Martin, 2006). In the Deconstruction stage, teachers model the structure and linguistic features explicitly to help students get familiar with the target genre through a number of teacher-led interaction activities with peer support. Students could also be scaffolded in the stage of Joint Negotiation, where they are arranged to work together to write a new text with their teacher or capable peers. In the Independent Construction stage, temporary scaffolding is finally removed (Derewianka, 2003; Feez, 1999). Teachers withdraw their support when students are finally able to write on their own. During all of the stages, teachers frequently modify the level of scaffolding to ensure their students are reasonably aided in their ZPD. Such constantly adjusted support is captured as 'contingent' instruction in relation to teacher's capacity for tutoring (van Lier, 1996; Wells, 1986; Wood, 1998).

Contingent instruction requires teachers' considerations both at the macro and the micro levels, which refer to teachers' before-class designs and in-class guidance (Dansie, 2001; Hammond & Gibbons, 2001, 2005). Specifically, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) have presented their deliberations in describing scaffolding types at both before-class and in-class levels, namely designed-in scaffolding and interactional scaffolding, which are largely overlapped with Mercer's (1995) notions about teacher support. In the present study, both types of scaffolding strategies were analysed when investigating teacher participants' initial contingent instructions before the workshop training. However, when looking at the post-workshop findings, attention was mainly

paid to teachers' adoption of interactional scaffolding strategies, whereas the designed-in scaffolding was excluded as the intervention plan was designed by the researcher (see Chapter 4).

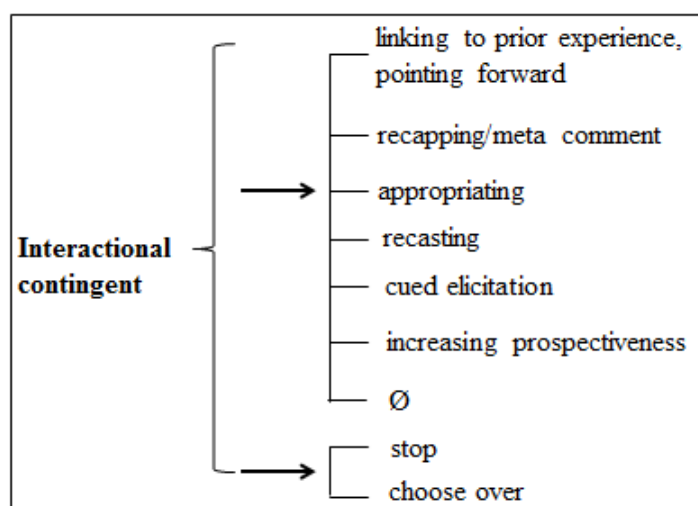


Figure 3.4 Interactional Scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005, p.21)

As outlined in Figure 3.4 which is cited from Hammond and Gibbons (2005), interactional scaffolding involves a set of strategies teachers can draw on to assist students' learning. Teachers commonly use certain techniques to guide students' learning development through language use, even though they may not be aware of the techniques they use, and they vary between each other in how much and how well they use them (Mercer, 1995). According to Hammond and Gibbons (2005), classroom interactions are very often linked to students' *prior experiences*. By connecting the broader lesson or curriculum purposes with students' prior experience, teachers *point forward* the interactions. To end interactions, teachers often frequently use *recapitulation* to summarize the themes of the conversation with students. Sometimes, teachers express their *appreciation* of students' contributions such as ideas and information, which is often accompanied by teachers' *recasting*, to ensure students' wordings are appropriate and students are guided to progress.

Researchers have pointed out a three-part exchange of IRF (initiation, response & feedback) as a ubiquitous type of classroom interaction (Mercer, 1995; van Lier, 2001). It suggests teachers'



attempts to elicit students' relevant knowledge, respond to students, and describe shared classroom experiences with students. In particular, Hammond and Gibbons (2005) argue that the IRF sequence is employed in two major ways: Providing *cued elicitation* and to *increase prospectiveness*. The former refers to teachers' offers of strong hints to students in order to elicit expected responses in the interactions (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Mercer, 1995). The latter describes the extended process in the third move of IRF aiming to elicit students' further clarification or explanation (Gibbons, 2003; Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Mercer, 2002; van Lier, 2001). As a consequence, the interactional scaffolding features that are employed to frame teacher participants' related actions include *elaboration*, *elicitation*, *recapitulation*, *recast*, *rejection*, *repetition* and *confirmation*.

This network model is particularly useful when examining teacher participants' interactional scaffolding strategies in their classroom discourses. In the teaching-learning cycle, the frequent employment of interactions and scaffolding strategies during the first two stages of Deconstruction and Joint Construction are regarded as being "central to writing development" (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011, p.100). Therefore, the extent to which the teacher participants followed the interaction activities in the intervention design, and applied interactional scaffolding strategies to support their students, reflected teachers' perceptions of the pedagogy to a great degree.

However, when applying an educational innovation, teachers' belief in the pedagogy is essential (Fullan, 2001). Any innovation in classroom practice has to be compatible with teachers' own beliefs in teaching principles (Breen et al., 2001; Levitt, 2001). Accordingly, in the present study, the success of applying the SFL genre pedagogy as a pedagogical change to teaching writing depended on teacher participants' beliefs concerning the pedagogy. Therefore, TC theories were employed as the second major framework of this study.

### **3.3 Teacher Cognition**

TC is defined as “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe, and think” (Borg, 2003, p.81). This theory provided a lens through which to explore the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy by examining teacher participants’ perceptions. TC theory helped to conceptualize how teacher participants perceived the initial pedagogies they employed in teaching writing. It also aided in exploring how teachers made sense of the SFL genre pedagogy from their expressions and teaching practices. On this basis, the manner in which possible changes in teachers’ cognition and teaching practices were related to their students’ learning outcomes was also explored.

To further discuss TC as the second key framework of the present study, this section starts with an introduction to Borg’s (2003) model of TC, which serves as an overarching framework to describe teacher participants’ cognition of teaching writing. In particular, the two central components of TC, namely ‘belief’ and ‘knowledge’, are discussed in the second section as they are the two most frequently used terms to frame TC (Calderhead, 1996). Shulman’s model of teacher knowledge is subsequently outlined to gain greater insight into what comprises teacher knowledge.

#### **3.3.1 Borg’s model of TC**

Borg’s model of TC is significant as it depicts teachers’ personal dimensions of teaching, as well as the social and contextual dimensions of teaching (Underwood, 2012). According to Borg (2003), what teachers do in classrooms is linked to what they know, think and believe. The overarching relationship between TC, classroom practice and related factors can be presented in Figure 3.5 below.

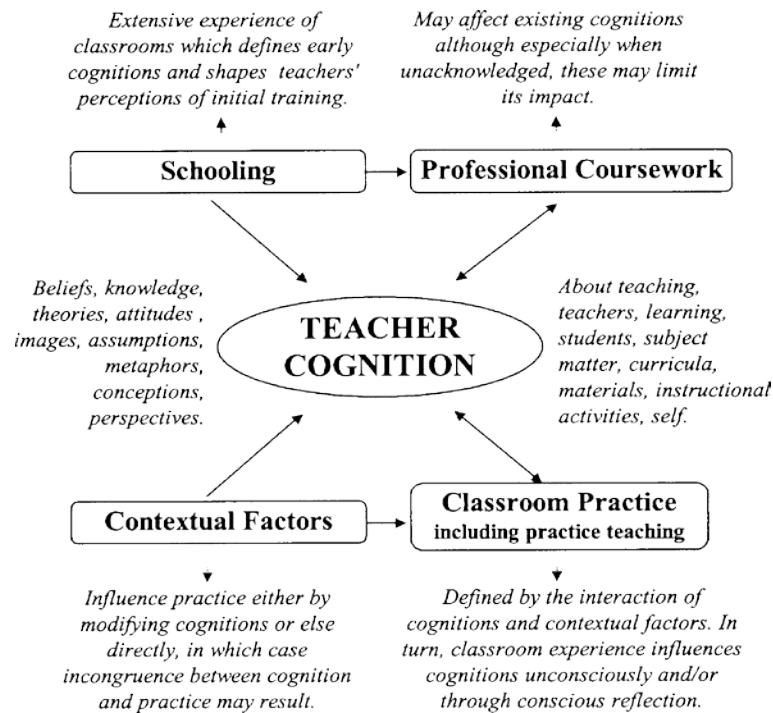


Figure 3.5 Teacher Cognition, Schooling, Professional Education, and Classroom Practice (Borg, 2003, p.82)

The figure above indicates that the development of TC is influenced by teachers' learning experience as students, teachers' classroom practices, teachers' professional coursework, and various contextual factors which can be viewed as the four sources of TC. Borg's concept of TC is in line with the argument from Breen et al. (2001) that when interacting with complex classroom factors, teachers classroom work is strongly affected by their knowledge, which is derived from training, learning experience and their teaching career. As such, to apply the SFL genre pedagogy as a pedagogical innovation, it is therefore necessary to understand teacher participants' initial sources of cognition. On this basis, teachers' perceptions of the SFL genre pedagogy can more easily be understood. It can also help to illustrate the impact of pedagogical training on TC as well as on their teaching practices (as will be done in the current study).

Teachers' schooling experience (experience of learning as a learner) is the first major influence on TC and provides teachers with an image of teaching behaviour and constructs teachers' initial perceptions of teaching (Borg, 2003, 2006; Johnson, 1994; Richardson, 1996). Teachers establish their beliefs of teaching through their experience as learners, which is also referred to as "craft

knowledge” (Calderhead, 1996, p.717) or “the wisdom of practice” (Shulman, 1987, p.11). Similarly, Lotie (1975) asserts that teachers generate an idea of what teaching is through ‘apprenticeship of observation’. Through personal experience, teachers create their image of what a teacher should be like (Clandinin, 1985; Elbaz, 1983). Teachers’ memories from their learning experience as students contribute to teachers’ decisions about images of teaching materials, classroom activities and organizations, and teachers (Johnson, 1994). For example, teachers’ beliefs regarding teaching and learning writing start to develop when they are learning how to write in their primary schools as a student. This early experience continues to influence teachers’ beliefs regarding learning writing and even teaching pedagogy in their own careers as teachers. In short, from teachers’ schooling experience, teachers generate their initial concept of ‘what teaching is’, ‘what teachers should be like’ and ‘how to teach’. Arıoğlu (2007) argues that this schooling experience helps teachers to better understand their students and make instructional decisions. Therefore, investigating teacher participants’ schooling experience was particularly useful in understanding teachers’ initial pedagogical choices in teaching writing.

The second influence on TC is contextual factors, which also influence teaching practices. Contextual factors refer to social, psychological and environmental realities of schools and classrooms (Borg, 1998). As illustrated in Figure 3.5, the types of contextual factors impacting TC are diverse. Borg (2003) points out that teaching practices are shaped by all those contextual realities and sometimes they may hinder teachers’ ability to adopt practices that reflect their real beliefs. This argument is in line with the viewpoint from Anning (1988) and Yinger and Hendricks-Lee (1993) that teacher knowledge lies within the interaction of particular contexts and situations, and that teaching involves interacting within these systems. Contextual factors could also shape teacher participants’ beliefs in the SFL genre pedagogy in the present study. As a consequence, attention should be paid to those factors when analysing the relationship between teachers’ cognition about the genre pedagogy and teachers’ implementation practices.

Another factor influencing TC is classroom practice, which is highlighted as the most important factor influencing the development of TC (Richardson, 1996; Tsui, 2003). Borg (2003) explains that practice and cognition influence each other: On the one hand, the interaction of TC and contextual factors result in classroom practice; on the other hand, teachers' classroom practices impact TC. Borg's viewpoint is in line with Anning's (1988) concept that teachers develop their practical skills by interacting with complex contextual factors within classroom teaching. In this sense, teacher participants' stated beliefs concerning the SFL genre pedagogy are shaped not only by teachers' schooling experience and contextual factors, but also by the results of interaction between implementation practice and the contextual factors.

Professional coursework (professional training) is the final influence that impacts TC in Borg's model. While researchers argue about the great impact of training, they also point out the variables of changes between teachers, and discuss the relationship between changes in TC and teaching practice. Even though some researchers (e.g. Kagan, 1990; Peacock, 2001) state that the impact of teacher education is not significant, in many cases researchers (e.g. Baker, 2011; Borg, 1998; Freeman, 1993; Johnson, 1994) have demonstrated the powerful influence of professional training on TC, which is clearly reflected in their teaching practices. Moreover, previous studies (Borg, 2003) also attest to the varied extent to which changes take place in TC after teachers undertake professional training. Borg's concept is supported by a more recent study by Baker (2011). She revealed that the training teacher participants had received as part of their Masters-level coursework strongly affected their cognition, albeit to varying degrees. For three of the teachers studied, their graduate education was found to strongly impact their teaching practice. By contrast, the influence on the other two teachers was minimal. In Almarza's view (1996), the variety of the teachers' acceptance of the value of their formal training appeared to be largely influenced by their individual experience prior to the training. These research findings in relation to the impact of training on TC suggest that the training in the SFL genre pedagogy would impact teacher participants' cognition in the present study, but the extent to which changes happened to their TC probably varied between teachers.

While identifying professional coursework as a source impacting TC, Borg (2003) also argues that the relationship between TC and teaching behaviours during, or as a result of, teacher education is not definite. A change in TC may not necessarily imply changes in teaching practices. For example, Freeman (1993) concluded earlier in a longitudinal study that in contrast to a clear impact on TC, the influence of the education program on teachers' classroom behaviour was inconclusive. Some behavioural changes were revealed in teaching practices and some remained unchanged. This result suggested that the professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy would lead to inconsistent changes in teacher participants' cognition about the genre pedagogy and implementation practices. The four sources in Borg's model of TC are widely applied in research on TC, and are therefore important considerations in subsequent research on the same area, such as in the current study.

There are three main reasons why this TC model is a suitable framework for this study. To start with, the relationships between TC and classroom practice, and associated factors in those two areas, are clearly illustrated in this model. Furthermore, Borg's model could help to figure out the contextual factors that might influence teachers' cognitions and/or practices. Last but not least, because the investigation of the current study was based on workshop trainings in the SFL genre pedagogy as a pedagogical change, Borg's model was appropriate in illustrating to what extent teacher participants' beliefs and practices were shaped by the training, and how much the two were connected to each other. Changes in teacher participants' cognition and practices could then be compared with their students' learning outcomes to seek any links. The comparison of results would not only reveal their relationships, but also provide supporting evidence to show the effects of the SFL genre pedagogy in helping students' learning of writing.

### **3.3.2 Belief and knowledge**

Among numerous components included in the broad definition of TC, the concepts of 'belief' and 'knowledge' appear to be the two most widely used terms in relation to TC (Calderhead, 1996). Belief is frequently viewed as "a mental state" that is accepted as true by individuals, whereas

knowledge is typically seen as what is actually true (M. Borg, 2001, p.186). In particular, Richardson (1996) defines 'belief' as "psychologically held understanding, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true" (p.103). Such understanding guides individuals' thoughts, decision-making and behaviours (M. Borg, 2001; Goodenough, 1963). In comparison, 'knowledge' is defined as the "factual propositions and the understandings that inform skilful action" (Calderhead, 1996, p.715). The term 'teacher knowledge' is defined more narrowly and is related to the specific knowledge that teachers need to possess. It refers to what teachers know and the insights that are reflected in their teaching practices (Carter, 1990). As such, compared with the more subjective propositions or judgements of 'belief', 'knowledge' is the more objective or factual state. However, in contrast to emphasizing the differences between 'belief' and 'knowledge', there is an increasing argument for a broad definition of 'belief' that includes all mental constructs. This broad definition is also followed in the present study (see Section 2.6) although some terms such as 'belief' and 'knowledge', are more frequently used as the two major strands of studies in TC.

Research on teachers' knowledge seeks to understand it by connecting with teachers' classroom practices. Fenstermacher (1994) divides those studies into two strands based on their different research foci. Research in the first strand mainly relies on teachers' narratives to explore what teachers know and based on that, to predict what teachers may do in their classrooms. One of the earliest researchers of this strand, Elbaz (1983) states that teachers work on the basis of their "practical knowledge" including what teachers know about their students and teachers' pedagogical and classroom management skills (p.5). In subsequent research Elbaz (1991) summarized three areas of research enquiry on teacher knowledge, namely "teacher thinking", "the culture of teaching", and "the personal, practical knowledge of teachers" (p.1). For Elbaz, as well as for other researchers (e.g. Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Hedrick, Harmon, & Linerode, 2004), a teacher's knowledge can be inferred from narratives (concepts that teachers express in relation to what should take place in their classrooms) and indicates his/her instructional effectiveness as a result. Rather than focusing on teachers' classroom behaviours, researchers in

this strand tend to uncover the teacher's knowledge and beliefs from teachers' narratives to understand how a teacher may represent his/her knowledge in classroom practices. In this sense, teachers' knowledge is not necessarily only reflected in their teaching practices; instead, it can also be reflected in their statements.

In contrast, researchers in the other strand have been seeking to work out how teachers' knowledge is reflected in their actions, rather than merely accepting teachers' narratives as their knowledge. For example, in Schön's (1983, 1991) epistemology of practice, knowing is represented in action. That is, knowledge is revealed through actions and therefore, what teachers know is reflected in their classroom practices. Drawing on Schön's concept, researchers (e.g. Russell & Munby, 1992) have shown great interest in investigating how teachers' knowledge links to their actions in particular contexts. They attempt to understand teachers' knowledge by analysing their teaching actions.

Borg's (2003) more recent theory of TC purports to reflect the concept in both strands. According to Borg, TC (e.g. knowledge) and teaching practices are mutually informing. As such, TC emerges as a powerful influence on teaching practices. In return, what teachers do in classrooms often reflects their knowledge. Following Borg's notion, the present study combines insights from both strands of teacher knowledge. It values what teachers express about their knowledge, and the insights gathered from observations of their classroom teaching. In other words, the teacher participants' knowledge about writing instruction was investigated by analysing both their statements and their teaching actions.

The following section discusses additional models of teacher knowledge. Particular attention is given to Shulman's (1986, 1987) model because of its usefulness for framing teacher participants' initial knowledge and their knowledge of the genre pedagogy in the current study.



### 3.3.3 Shulman's model of teacher knowledge

Under the umbrella term 'teacher knowledge' are more specific categories of knowledge suggested by theorists and researchers over the past several decades. For example, a) content knowledge (Shulman, 1986), which defines "the amount and organization of knowledge per se in the mind of the teacher", is composed of three categories: Subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge (p.9); b) craft knowledge (Calderhead, 1996; Schön, 1983), which refers to the knowledge that teachers acquire from their teaching practices, is also identified as "wisdom of practice" and refers to a potential source of knowledge (Shulman, 1987, p.11); and c) personal practical knowledge (Clandinin, 1986; Elbaz, 1983), which emphasizes the role of teachers' life experiences in shaping teachers' knowledge and development, and influencing teachers' adaptation of this knowledge into real classroom teaching. The views on categories of teacher knowledge above indicate the significance of this topic in previous studies.

Instead of focusing on one specific category of teacher knowledge, a variety of models of teacher knowledge (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Grossman, 1995) have been proposed with more categories. Compared with others' definitions, Shulman's (1986, 1987) model seems to be comprehensive in classifying teacher knowledge. It has an emphasis on content knowledge and is composed of seven categories:

- subject matter content knowledge (knowledge about a subject)
- curriculum knowledge (knowledge about teaching programs and instructional materials)
- general pedagogical knowledge (knowledge of pedagogical skills)
- pedagogical content knowledge (knowledge of teaching a subject by using appropriate examples, illustrations, explanations and techniques to make students understand)
- knowledge of learners (knowledge of students' learning needs, strengths and motivations etc.)

- knowledge of educational contexts (knowledge of assessment system and English teaching program etc.)
- knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds

Shulman's model suggests that all teachers' content teaching decisions are made on the basis of the seven knowledge categories. In this sense, the achievement of successful teaching depends on teachers' understanding of subject matter content and curriculum, and teachers' capabilities of selecting appropriate pedagogies to make the subject matter content comprehensible to their students with a consideration of contextual issues. Shulman's framework was employed in the current study because it is a theoretical and epistemological model about teachers' knowledge bases (Tsui, 2003). Furthermore, this model has been successfully adopted in the area of L2 research on TC and teaching practices (e.g. Baker, 2014; S. Borg, 2001; Freeman, 2002; Gatbonton, 1999; W. Zhang, 2008). While Borg's model is too general (Gerami & Noordin, 2013), Shulman's (1986, 1987) model has more comprehensive coverage of teachers' knowledge bases, and is thus useful to identify the teacher participants' knowledge of writing instruction.

Those seven categories of teacher knowledge in Shulman's (1986, 1987) model, however, are frequently integrated and intermesh constantly in practice, and are thus less easy to distinguish (Grossman, 1995; Tsui, 2003). For example, appropriateness of pedagogical application often relies on sufficient understanding of curriculum and it requires teachers' knowledge about students. Furthermore, specific contextual factors such as assessment systems and English teaching programmes also need to be considered. This notion of the inter-related nature of the knowledge categories seems useful in understanding teacher participants' knowledge bases in the present study.

On the whole, Shulman's model is useful in gaining an insight into teacher participants' initial knowledge of teaching writing prior to the training in the genre pedagogy. It is also helpful in

framing possible changes to teacher participants' knowledge bases after they have received professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy.

### **3.4 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter has presented an understanding of language in SFL theory as developed by Halliday (1978, 1994), which considers the inter-relationship between language and social context, and how a text is constructed on this basis. The social contexts consist of two inter-related levels of cultural and situational contexts. Cultural context determines the overall textual structure and social purpose (genre) whereas situational context determines the linguistic features regarding the three variables of register. The application of the genre pedagogy in SFL is in the model of the teaching-learning cycle, comprising of three stages of Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction, with the segments of 'setting context' and 'building field' throughout. Accordingly, to learn a target genre such as the Discussion Genre, teacher participants in the present study were required to assist their students to develop the awareness of its social communicative purposes, textual structure and appropriate choices of language features through a set of interaction activities. Informed by the underpinning theory of Vygotsky's ZPD and scaffolding in the cycle, teachers were required to adjust their support until they finally withdrew when students became independent writers.

After explaining the genre theories, the important role of TC in achieving the research goal was acknowledged, because the success of any educational innovation depends on teachers' belief in the changes (Fullan, 2001) and attention was paid to teachers' perceptions when investigating the potential of the genre pedagogy. The outline of TC as the other important theoretical framework of the current study is twofold: Borg's (2003) model of TC was employed as it represents the overarching relationship between TC and its sources including schooling, professional education, and classroom practice; Shulman's (1986, 1987) model was also used because it illustrates teachers' knowledge base comprehensively. These two models were chosen because they are

useful in identifying teacher participants' overall cognition and specific knowledge base about teaching writing respectively.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology employed to address the research question of the present study. The overarching research question was driven by three sub-questions as shown below:

*How do Chinese EFL teachers view the effectiveness of SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in College English classes?*

- How do Chinese EFL teachers articulate their current strategies to support students' learning of writing?
- How do Chinese EFL teachers make sense of the genre pedagogy to effectively support students' learning of writing?
- What is the relationship between students' writing outcomes and their teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy?

To achieve the research purpose above, the discussion of research methods in this chapter is composed of seven major sections. The first three sections explain the research design, the research setting and participants. The following two sections describe the data collection instruments and analytic devices. The final two sections discuss the ethical issues and limitations of this study.

## **4.2 Research Design**

### **4.2.1 Qualitative research**

As outlined in Chapter 2, little is known about the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy to teach writing when instructing EFL learners in China. This study thus aims to investigate the potential of this pedagogy to assist Chinese students' learning of writing, particularly from the perspective of Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about this pedagogy. This exploratory purpose made the qualitative approach method the most appropriate for the purpose of exploring a problem or issue (Creswell, 2007).

A qualitative research study possesses several typical features. First of all, qualitative research attempts to provide a detailed description and interpretation of data under investigation (Ary et al., 2002; Creswell, 2007; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). It focuses on understanding phenomena from the participants' perspectives rather than from the researcher's perspectives (Creswell, 2007; Hatch, 2002; Merriam, 1998). Small participant samples are intentionally selected to gather rich and in-depth opinions (Ary et al., 2002; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002) instead of conducting large-scale surveys without adequate consideration of contextual details, as is more typical of quantitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Data in qualitative research studies are collected from multiple sources (Creswell, 2007; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006) and in natural settings (Creswell, 2007; Glesne, 2006; Hatch, 2002; Holliday, 2002; Kervin, Vialle, Herrington, & Okely, 2006; Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002).

The features outlined above position qualitative research as a promising methodology for investigating the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in a Chinese context, from the perspective of teacher participants and in relation to their students' writing samples. A purposeful sampling strategy was used to recruit small groups of teacher and student participants in their own university, the natural environment of their teaching and study. Multiple data collection methods consisting of

interviews, observations and written documents were employed to enhance the reliability and validity of the data collected.

#### **4.2.2 Case study design**

A case study explores “a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded system (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information ... and reports a case description and case-based themes” (Creswell, 2007, p. 73). It allows an investigation to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events via multiple sources (Yin, 1984). A ‘case’ is “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 25). Therefore, a case study differs from other qualitative research in its use of a bounded system in which detailed, in-depth information is explored from multiple sources (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007; Merriam, 1998; L. M. Smith, 1978; Yin, 1984).

A case study was identified as the most suitable method for this study for three reasons. Firstly, the case study method aims to organize the data in a unit and to provide the wholeness of the essence being explored in the research (Stake, 1995) from a wide range of perspectives including persons, groups or settings (Tewksbury, 2009) rather than through analysis alone. This research study was conducted to examine the phenomenon with regard to effective writing pedagogies to teach Chinese EFL learners at a single Chinese university. The study thus exhibited the bounded nature of a case study, including the place and time for data collection, and the selection of limited participants with particular criteria according to its research purpose.

The second reason for choosing a case study is that such research enables participants to answer ‘how’ or ‘why’ questions with little interference from the researcher as well as allows for a focus on phenomena in a real life setting (Yin, 2003). In the current study, rich descriptions were obtained from participants’ actual teaching experiences, which served to answer the three research sub-questions and later, the overarching research question.

Lastly, investigations which involve the design of programs are regarded as common phenomena in case study research (Stake, 1995). This common characteristic of case studies was shared by the present study, because the exploration of teacher participants' perceptions of the SFL genre pedagogy was conducted on the basis of a training and teaching program designed by the researcher.

### **4.3 Research Setting**

The research was undertaken at the Foreign Language Department of a university in Shanghai, China for two reasons. This decision was made firstly due to the researcher's solid understanding of that university, especially the CE teaching situation and the lecturers, as she had been teaching there for over six years before starting the doctoral study. As Creswell (2007) argues, being familiar with the context is not only convenient but also helpful in avoiding many obstacles when collecting data. The second concern was related to the research interest in investigating the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in teaching CE writing.

For the purpose of investigating the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy as a pedagogical change to teaching CE writing, understanding the CE teaching situation is particularly important. As introduced in Chapter 1, all non-English major students are required to learn CE as a compulsory course in the first two years of their bachelor's study. For course completion, they must attend CET4 to ensure their English proficiency meets the requirement specified in the CECR. During the course of their first two years' studies, CE students in the research setting had two CE classes (one and a half hours for each) weekly for 17 weeks each semester. One unit/topic was typically covered over each two week period. Students were expected to develop their overall communicative competence as the main goal of the CECR. In this study, six (teacher participants' normal CE classes) out of 42 CE classes in Year Two were chosen to conduct classroom observations and locate student participants.



#### 4.4 Research Participants

A purposeful sampling strategy was employed in this study to locate a specific type and number of participants that would provide sufficiently rich information to achieve the research purpose (Gall et al., 2007; Patton, 2002) as outlined above. Researchers in purposeful sampling are able to choose cases where there would be more evidence of potential occurrence in the study processes (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). They assume that they are likely to access in-depth understanding of research findings (Merriam, 1998). The purposeful sampling strategy thus appeared to be the most appropriate to locate participants for the purpose of obtaining detailed information through a case study method in the current research. It was applied to select both the teacher and student participants with full consideration of the research purpose and available sources.

With the permission from the Dean of the Foreign Language Department, teacher participants were recruited by personal invitation based on the year of the students they were teaching, their teaching experience and general academic background. As discussed earlier, the teaching of CE writing is driven by the CET, and all students are required to write upon completion of their two years of CE study (see Section 1.2). Hence, only teachers who were teaching the second year of CE were invited to participate in the study, as it was then when writing was more often included in the curriculum. Furthermore, having at least five years of teaching experience in the research setting was an essential criterion because the research investigation focused on teachers' pedagogical perceptions for teaching writing at that particular university. More valuable and consistently rich information about teaching methodologies could be obtained from experienced teachers, and could reduce possible variations that might result from overly different degrees of teaching experience (e.g. pre-service & in-service teachers). Teachers' general academic background was examined as the last criterion. All teacher participants had earned their Masters' degrees majoring in linguistics or teaching methodology, and had been conducting research in those areas to ensure they had reasonable academic backgrounds. As a result, six CE teachers met the selection criteria stated in this section, and of these, only one male there met the criteria and was invited. The participants' teaching experience ranged from seven to twenty years. Table 4.1 below outlines the teachers' overall background information.

Table 4.1

*Teacher Participants' Background Information*

<b>Pseudonyms</b> (gender)	<b>Amy</b> (Female)	<b>Cathy</b> (Female)	<b>Jane</b> (Female)	<b>Kate</b> (Female)	<b>Mike</b> (Male)	<b>Patty</b> (Female)
<b>Age</b>	42	32	36	32	34	42
<b>Teaching experience</b>	20 years	7 years	12 years	10 years	11 years	20 years
<b>Study level &amp; major</b>	Master Teaching methods	Master Linguistics	Master Linguistics	Master Linguistics	Master Applied Linguistics	Master Linguistics
<b>Rank</b>	Lecturer	Lecturer	Lecturer	Lecturer	Lecturer	Lecturer
<b>Research area</b>	Teaching methods, curriculum	Linguistics, teaching methods	Teaching methods	Linguistics, teaching methods	Discourse analysis	Linguistics, teaching methods
<b>International experience</b>	No	No	No	No	No	One-month stay in the USA with a group of students on study tour

After having located the teacher participants, six student groups were chosen from the associated classes and were identified by their teachers (the participants) based on their English proficiency. Six students with different English proficiency levels (high, medium, low; two of each level) were recruited as a focus group from each teacher's class (36 students in total) for the purpose of maximizing the variety of the information obtained. The purpose of inviting student participants was mainly to collect samples of their in-class writing samples as supportive data to gain further insights into the data gathered from their teachers. Finally, all students who participated in this study were aged between 18 and 22, with the majority being female (30 out of 36).

In addition, as discussed earlier in Section 2.3.2, the teaching of CE is highly CET-driven and this was also the case in the research setting. While CE teaching is generally based on textbook topics, particular attention is placed to CET purpose when the tests are approaching. However, how much time was assigned on such CET-oriented teaching mostly depends to large extent on individual teachers rather than being clearly stated in the CE syllabi.

## 4.5 Research Instruments

Semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and written documents were used as the three major sources to investigate Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy. Multiple sources are more likely to provide reliable information than a single source (Patton, 2002) and the method of triangulation can also strengthen the stability of the case if similar results are found via different methods (Guba, 1981). When two or more methods work together through triangulation, the weakness of one method can be compensated for by another. Hence, multiple sources of evidence were employed in the present study to ensure greater validity and to seek sufficient information to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2007; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Figure 4.1 below illustrates the research methods and the process of data collection.

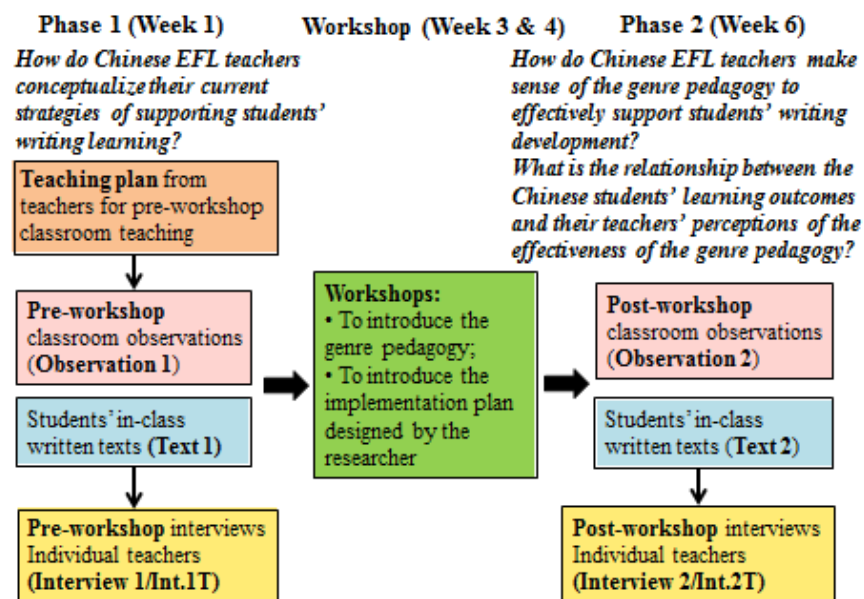


Figure 4.1 Key Data Sources and Collection Procedure

With the intention of exploring the Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy, the collection of primary data proceeded in two phases, over three month period (October to December) in 2011, according to the timing of the workshops. The purpose of pre-workshop (Phase 1) data collection was to capture teachers' pre-existing perceptions of their

typical writing pedagogy, as reflected by their interview statements, classroom teaching practices and associated teaching plans. The post-workshop (Phase 2) data collection aimed to reveal how the teachers made sense of the genre pedagogy on the basis of the professional training and classroom application of the pedagogy. Collecting student participants' in-class writing samples in both observations then provided additional supportive evidence for their teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy (see further discussion in Section 4.5.4). To simplify, the primary data of interviews, observations and writing samples are referred to as 1 or 2 hereafter, depending on whether they were conducted before (e.g. Text 1) or after (e.g. Text 2) the workshops (see Figure 4.1). It is therefore also clear that the examination of TC about the SFL genre pedagogy relied on training in the genre pedagogy and the relevant instructional plans designed by the researcher.

In addition to the primary data sources outlined above, data also included other relevant documents such as the national CECR, the local CE syllabus, a CET sample, and the assessment criteria for the CET writing task. These written documents provided background information helpful to understanding the data gathered from the key sources above. Hence, the next section will describe the design of the workshops and the instructional plans. This will be followed by a discussion on the three major data methods of interview, observation and written documents.

#### **4.5.1 Design of the workshops and the instructional plans**

Two workshops were designed to introduce teacher participants to the theoretical concepts of the SFL genre approach, its pedagogical model, and to allow the teachers to apply this knowledge to jointly negotiate the final instructional plans for teaching the Discussion Genre (based on the initial design from the researcher) according to the needs of their own teaching contexts. The delivery of both workshops was informed by the socio-cultural theories and the concept of scaffolding in particular, for the purpose of illustrating the pedagogical values of the key concepts of the genre approach to the teachers. Each workshop lasted three hours to fit in with the teachers' busy working schedule. A separate handout with related theoretical concepts and the researcher's instructional design was provided to the teachers (see Appendix 3). The handout proved to be an

invaluable pedagogical tool for the teachers, as it not only acted as a form of support for them to understand the genre approach during the training process, but also offered a reference point when reviewing the training and preparing for the follow-up teaching practice.

#### ***4.5.1.1 Design of the first workshop***

The purpose of the first workshop was to introduce the key concepts of the genre theories, with particular attention paid to the Discussion Genre. To help teachers engage with key concepts, they were encouraged to make connections to their own pedagogical experiences through a series of interactions. In these interactions, the key concepts of scaffolding, ZPD and mediation in the genre approach, and their pedagogical values in supporting students' learning development, were discussed. For example, after having been provided with explanations of scaffolding, the teachers were asked to relate this concept to relevant examples from their teaching experience, which they then shared with each other. Similarly, after the relationships between ZPD, scaffolding and mediation were explained, the teachers were asked to identify examples of scaffolding from their own experience, which they then analysed to explore how the key socio-cultural features functioned in the learning processes. In the meantime, the researcher not only applied different interactional scaffolding strategies (e.g. repetition, confirmation, recapitulation, elaboration and so forth), but also highlighted those frequently used strategies in their teaching. The workshop provided opportunities for teachers to make connections between the new concepts being presented and their own classroom practices. By bringing together the key theoretical concepts with the teachers' personal teaching experience, and supporting this process with purposeful and sustained interactions, the workshop modelled the kind of pedagogical practices the teachers needed to take to their own teaching contexts. In the workshop, it was envisaged that the connections made when sharing experiences would consolidate teachers' understandings of the functions of socio-cultural theories in the genre pedagogy, and in turn, to best support their students' learning development.

In the second part of the first workshop, the teachers were introduced to the concept of ‘genre’, and in particular, the Discussion Genre. As discussed in Chapter 1, teaching writing in China is heavily influenced by the nationwide CET, with a strong focus on the Discussion Genre (J. Gao, 2007; Y. Zhang, 2008). The Discussion Genre was chosen for this workshop as the target genre through which teaching and students’ in-class writing practice were observed. It was believed that this choice would generate teachers’ interest in participating in the current study. The training workshop focused on explicating the social contexts in which the Discussion Genre was used to present information and argue for both sides of a topical issue, concluding with the writer’s view based on evidence (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Derewianka, 1990; Derewianka & Jones, 2012); and linguistic features are used to realise those communicative purposes. Similar to the first part of the workshop, where connections between concepts and real-life were discussed, the teachers were encouraged to identify social contexts in which this genre is used. This included considering both oral and written modes so that teachers could become more familiar with the different contexts of the Discussion Genre. A list of social contexts in which this genre typically occurs was then provided to the teachers, with their examples as a point of reference to further enhance their understanding of this genre, including when and where its use is appropriate. Among the list of social contexts, ‘exam papers (writing tasks in CET)’ was considered most relevant to use as the target genre on which to design the instructional plans for the current research study, since the teaching of writing is highly CET-oriented, and in which the focus on evaluating writing tasks is placed on accurate forms of language use (Fang, 2010).

#### ***4.5.1.2 Design of the second workshop***

The second workshop introduced the pedagogical model of the SFL genre approach and how it informed the teaching of the Discussion Genre. The purpose was to enable teachers to make more sense of the pedagogical value of the genre pedagogy in teaching designs and practices. The workshop concluded with teachers’ joint planning on the final instructional plans (see Section

4.5.1.3) based on the researcher's design, which was adjusted after the second pilot study (see Section 4.6).

Applying the genre pedagogy to teach the Discussion Genre requires teachers to have pedagogical knowledge about how to appropriately use this pedagogy to help their students' learning of writing, and subject matter content knowledge about what to teach for the Discussion Genre. To ensure solid understanding of the genre pedagogy, the workshop instruction on using the instructional model of the genre pedagogy and the Discussion Genre followed the researcher's instructional plans that were designed for the students. By doing so, the teachers were introduced to the teaching-learning cycle and how this pedagogy works for students' learning of a target genre. The teachers could also develop their understanding about how a Discussion Genre text moved forward in stages and how typical linguistic features realised its social purpose. As a result, they could achieve a more concrete sense about how to instruct students on the Discussion Genre within the genre pedagogy in their subsequent teaching practice. Consistent with the pedagogical approach taken in the workshop design to support teachers through drawing out explicit connections between concepts and practice, teachers were guided to enhance their knowledge about what and how to teach the Discussion Genre. Support embedded into the pedagogical design was frequently used to stimulate discussions, so that teachers could consider concrete examples of how language functions to achieve the social purpose of the Discussion Genre. Support included questions for discussion organised as interaction activities (e.g. group discussion), designed in the researcher's instructional plan.

The implementation model of the SFL genre approach applied to guide the overall instructional design in this study originated from a project in Sydney's Disadvantaged Schools Program (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988), which consists of three main stages that includes Modelling, Joint Negotiation of Text, and Independent Construction of Text, although there are variations in its pedagogical application (e.g. Callaghan & Knapp, 1989; Derewianka, 1990; Feez, 1999; Hammond et al., 1992; Martin & Rothery, 1991; Rothery, 1994).

The teaching-learning model cycle was particularly useful in the current study when it was applied to teach Chinese students the Discussion Genre. As explained earlier, teaching writing in China is delivered formally, with a strong focus on language knowledge and test-taking strategies. This differs from the emphasis of the SFL genre pedagogy on how language functions to achieve social communicative purposes. Based on the intervention teaching plan designed in the cycle (see discussion in the next section), students deconstructed a model text within the Discussion Genre through a set of task-based interaction activities with teachers' explicit guidance. In this way, students developed their understanding about the content, the schematic structure of the text, and how language features (three register variables) work together to respond to the situational context of the target genre. Teachers' assistance in the teaching-learning cycle typically drew on the socio-cultural theory of Vygotsky (1978), which is discussed in the next section.

The social interactional theory is especially important in the present study because the classroom teaching style in China is largely teacher-centred (see Chapter 1). To apply SFL genre pedagogy in the present study, teacher participants were expected to adopt a set of interaction activities in the pedagogical design. This is based on socio-cultural approaches to learning that students' engagement in interactions, together with teachers' guidance will contribute to students' writing development. In this sense, the success of the genre pedagogy in helping with students' writing development in the current study largely relied on teacher participants' effective support in interaction activities. Vygotsky (1978) has elaborated such 'teacher support' through the concepts of ZPD and scaffolding.

In the first stage of Modelling, a Discussion Genre text was deconstructed and the teachers were explicitly introduced to its social purpose and how this purpose was achieved through its schematic structure and linguistic features (Martin, 1999; Martin & Rose, 2005b). Investigating the significant textual features above helped to develop teachers' subject matter content knowledge of the Discussion Genre.



In the second stage, teachers role-played a classroom situation in which teacher and students were expected to work together to jointly construct a text on a topic in the Discussion Genre, while the teacher played the role of scribe and provided immediate feedback on students' contributions to the joint construction. To model this stage and prepare for the real classroom situation, some of the teachers (who acted as students) were asked to construct a Discussion Genre text together while one of them acted as a teacher, whose role was to assist the 'students' with different interactional scaffolding strategies, such as repetition, confirmation, recapitulation and elaboration.

Lastly, all these scaffolding strategies were recalled for analysis by the teachers to consolidate their understanding of how the strategies worked in 'students'' learning of writing. Again, the pedagogical approach of making explicit connections between concept and real-life through active involvement in discussion was consistently applied in the workshop. From the above experience at the stages of Modelling and Joint Negotiation of Text through role-play, the teachers were better able to develop concrete knowledge about how students could be assisted to develop their understanding about the Discussion Genre, using a step-by-step sequence to allow them to become independent writers in the genre.

#### ***4.5.1.3 Joint planning of the instructional plans***

The final step in the workshop design was to help teachers consolidate their emergent understandings of the theoretical concepts, the pedagogical model of the SFL genre approach, and its instructional application in particular. The teachers and the researcher worked jointly on the researcher's instructional design to decide the final plans for teaching the Discussion Genre in their subsequent classroom practice at the end of the second workshop. The emphasis of this step was to make genre features explicit for teachers, so that they would be better equipped to guide their students in more effective writing. A continuation of role-play activity was adopted with the teachers, but immediate discussions on the adjustment needs followed each activity in the researcher's instructional plans.

In terms of the researcher's instructional designs for the Modelling stage, the teachers generally agreed with the feasibility of the activities designed for instructing their students in the social purpose of the Discussion Genre, and how the schematic structure of the text worked for the purpose, but modification needs were suggested for instructions in linguistic features. The Modelling stage attempted to build up students' knowledge about the social function of the topic, schematic structure, text organisation, and linguistic features of the Discussion Genre. Students were expected to be introduced to the significant textual features of a Discussion Genre text, which followed the genre concept from Paltridge (2001), Gibbons (2002), and Callaghan and Knapp (1989) in particular. As shown in Table 4.2, various activities and lists of questions were designed into the Modelling stage in the researcher's instructional plans. They provided the teachers with a resource that could be readily used to guide their students to investigate and understand the social purpose and the textual features of the Discussion Genre.

Table 4.2

*Activities in Modelling Stage*

No.	Activities	Purpose
1	Individually read the model text Online Shopping	To obtain overall information about the text content and structure
2	Discussions about Online Shopping 1) What is the purpose of the article? 2) Who may write the article? 3) Who is it written for? 4) When may you need to write or read a Discussion?	To explore the social context of the text
3	Discussion about: How to state the issue, present topic sentence of arguments and relevant points, and recommend	To explore the schematic structure of the text
4	Discussion about how to start the 1st paragraph and what does each paragraph contain	To explore the text organization
5	Discussion about 1) How to open/start the introducing paragraph? 2) How to introduce another viewpoint? 3) How to summarize the viewpoints from two different sides? 4) How to introduce your recommendation? 5) How to write about the significance?	To explore the key features in the schematic structure of a Discussion Genre text
6	Whole class to identify the use of the simple present tense in the model text	To explore the function of the simple present tense
7	Whole class to identify the use of conjunctions in the model text	To explore the function of logical conjunctions
8	Discussion about the functions of different types of conjunctions in the text	

The first five activities of the Modelling stage aimed to support students to investigate the social purpose and the schematic structure of a Discussion Genre text, Online Shopping. After having obtained the content information of the text (see Appendix 3) through individual reading in Ex.1, students were encouraged to explore, discuss and develop their understanding about how the text moved forward in stages to achieve its social purpose in the follow-up four exercises (Ex. 2-5). Identifying the specific social purpose that a text serves is the best way to identify it as a particular genre that differentiates it from others (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). In the process of answering questions with peers, students were guided to investigate how the Discussion Genre model text was arranged in stages for its social purpose. For instance, students were asked to seek information about the components of the schematic structure to answer questions in Ex. 3, such as “how does the writer state the issue”, “what are the recommendations”, and the topic sentences of ‘argument for’, ‘argument against’ and relevant points. On the whole, all teachers believed their students

could be effectively assisted to develop their understanding about the social purpose of the Discussion Genre and how the schematic structure worked to achieve the goal.

Nevertheless, suggestions for modifying the researcher's initial design in regard to instructing students in the linguistic features were provided by the teachers for the final instructional plans. Rather than covering all of the four typical linguistic features in Callaghan and Knapp's (1989) instructional model on the Discussion Genre (see Section 3.2.1.3), the functions of simple present tense and conjunctions were focused on in the final instructional plans for three main reasons. The first was in relation to the focus of the instructional design, which was placed on the pedagogy instead of the linguistic items included. In other words, particular attention of the instructional designs was on how to support students' learning of writing in the genre pedagogy. The second was related to the time constraint, as it was impossible to cover every linguistic feature associated with the Discussion Genre within a limited time. The last reason drew on the teachers' knowledge about their students' language proficiency. In the consultation with the teachers, it was pointed out that although some features, such as the verb types of mental processes and rational, were quite useful in conveying the semantic association of verbs and their relations, the students had demonstrated their control in these areas. Yet some students might have difficulties in using the simple present tense, while the appropriate use of conjunctions might be even more challenging. As a result, instruction in the linguistic features covered *verb tense* (Ex. 6) and *logical conjunctions* (Ex. 7-8) within the possible time and through whole-class work.

In the stage of Joint Construction of Text, students were asked to construct a new Discussion Genre text (either with peers or their teachers) entitled "Online Entertainment" (Ex.9), based on their knowledge of this genre developed from the deconstruction experience in the Modelling stage. Discussion about Ex.9 with the teachers focused on the strategies for helping students in this stage. For example, the teachers were asked about the information sources, activity styles and scaffolding strategies they could apply to further enhance their students' understanding of the Discussion Genre in this stage. The teachers also learnt that in teaching practice, they could choose

to arrange students to collaboratively construct a text either in groups or as a whole class. The students were to discuss, share, and take notes about the topic using the fixed format of the Discussion Genre with their teacher's immediate feedback and support.

In the final stage of Independent Construction of Text, students individually constructed a Discussion Genre text on "Recreational Activities" (Ex.10). However, depending on students' needs, the teachers also might organize students to do further research on the topic or discuss with their peers (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). As such, the teacher participants would decide on the necessity of discussing the topic further or fully withdrawing their support. Eventually, students submitted their final writing products (Text 2) and the participants' writing samples were collected for analysis.

To summarise, the workshop design was for the purpose of assisting teachers to make explicit links between the new concepts being introduced in the workshops and their own teaching experience. Explicit knowledge and instruction with appropriate assistance and opportunities for discussion are important pedagogical tools - reflected in the design of the workshops and the instruction in the Discussion Genre, as an instructional method to improve students' learning of writing. In the context of teaching writing in China this workshop was innovative, because the impact of TC on pedagogical changes to the teaching of writing was rarely investigated there. The ensuing sections will discuss the research instruments used for data collection.

#### **4.5.2 Interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted face to face with individual teacher participants to obtain in-depth information about teachers' pedagogical beliefs regarding teaching writing. From interviews, we gain a better understanding of what is happening in people's minds (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Patton, 2002). It is also a means to check the accuracy of the information obtained from observations (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Compared with unstructured and structured interviews, in semi-structured interviews, the researcher can schedule a set of predetermined

questions in advance at a designated time, with the allowance of other emerging questions from dialogue (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Semi-structured interviews provide the researcher with flexibility to probe important issues and allow the interviewees to express their thoughts freely (Nunan, 1992). Therefore, this data collection method has the strength of providing in-depth information and opportunities for discovering respondent's experiences and thoughts. All these advantages of semi-structured interviews above could efficiently serve the research purpose of this study, and thus enabled a full exploration of the phenomena under investigation. Additionally, some more specific questions were asked based on observations of the teacher participants' in the classroom.

Interviews with individual teacher participants were regarded as the primary data source of this research study (see Appendix 5 for pre-designed interview questions) because the investigation of this study focused on teachers' perceptions. Pre-workshop interviews (Interview 1) aimed to investigate Chinese EFL teachers' concept of their initial writing pedagogy. Discussions were guided by a set of broad questions with the purpose of exploring their initial knowledge of curriculum, writing pedagogy, students, and teachers' educational background and professional experiences. Follow-up informal conversations were to be held after the workshop, which were recorded. According to the research design, more in-depth interviews were conducted in the Post-workshop interviews (Interview 2) which were recorded as well. Interview 2 were undertaken to explore the teachers' perceptions towards the genre pedagogy (e.g. advantages, limitations, achievements, adaptation ideas and so forth) in teaching CE writing in their contexts. Both interviews lasted for around 30 minutes and were conducted immediately after the teaching practices, to ensure that the teachers still had fresh memories about what they had experienced in the lectures.

With consent forms (see Appendices 6 and 7), all interviews were audio recorded for backup purposes. With the assistance of the recorder, the researcher felt more freedom and was in a more relaxed interaction situation with the interviewees rather than being distracted by note taking

(Whiting, 2008). The researcher could come back to the data as often as possible for the original form (Silverman, 2000). In particular, the participants were given the option to choose their preferred language (English/Chinese or combined) for the interviews in order to eliminate any obstacles arising from language use. As a result, except for three pre-interviews in English (with Cathy, Kate & Patty), all interviews were conducted in Chinese.

#### **4.5.3 Observations**

Direct observation was employed as the second source of the data collection, to seek complementary information to potentially corroborate the interview findings with individual teachers. Along the lines of Glesne (2006), observations focused on classroom activities for the purpose of potentially linking the participants' self-reported teaching methodologies to the methodologies actually used in their classrooms. Observations provide opportunities for knowing more about the context and what is happening in the context (Merriam, 1998). With respect to the contextual factor that very limited time was assigned to teach CE writing in the research setting, two classroom observations were conducted in each teacher participant's normal classroom teaching time (90 minutes) before (Observation 1) and after (Observation 2) the workshop respectively (see Figure 4.1), to minimize the possible influence on the normal syllabus mandate. The teaching times of both observed classes were divided into two parts, including teachers' writing instruction (60 minutes) and students' independent writing practice (30 minutes). In both observations, the researcher sat at the back of the classroom to ensure a good view of the whole class and also to minimize her presence as an outsider. The role of the researcher was a passive observer with a passive presence (Kervin et al., 2006) in direct observation (Yin, 2003) without any participation.

The whole of the teaching processes were audio-taped, with field notes taken by the researcher using a predesigned protocol. Following the teachers' suggestions, audio recorders were used to replace the original design of video recorders to reduce the possible impact on the in-class performance of both teachers' and students'. The recorder was placed on a desk in the middle of

the classroom so that the best record of all classroom discourses could be collected (as determined by the results of the second pilot study discussed later in Section 4.6). The availability of records allowed the researcher to refer back to it any time for further information (Silverman, 2000) and thus provided the researcher with more freedom to observe something beyond verbal expressions. A protocol was designed (Creswell, 2007) in advance (see Appendix 8) and the researcher could be guided to take notes and organize thoughts in the observation processes.

#### **4.5.4 Written documents**

The collected data of written documents were diverse. To start with, the national CECR (see Appendix 1) and local CE syllabus (see Appendix 9) were obtained. The CECR provided information in relation to the national CE curriculum requirements set by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. It helped to frame how well the local CE syllabus was designed with its guidance. The analysis of the CECR and the local CE syllabus was useful to understand the teachers' pre-workshop teaching designs (see Appendix 10 for a sample) and practices, and teachers' initial beliefs about 'what' and 'how' writing should be taught in CE classrooms accordingly.

The third type of written documents included three closely related data sources: Samples of CET writing tasks (see Appendix 11), assessment criteria for CET4 writing tasks (see Appendix 12), and student participants' two writing samples (See Appendices 13, 14, and 15-21). The first documents, CET writing tasks and assessment criteria were gathered to investigate how writing, a component of the communicative competence, was examined and judged in the CET. The last type of written document, students' two writing samples, constituted the third major source of data. Because students would only receive one instruction in genre pedagogy between their Text 1 and Text 2, instruction foci were placed on the textual features of *schematic structure* and certain *language features* (simple present tense and conjunctions). Eventually, students were expected to develop their control over those textual features to achieve the social communicative purpose. Accordingly, examination of students' pre-workshop writing samples (Text 1) enabled



exploration of students' initial ability to control the above textual features and was helpful for making comparisons with students' performance in their Text 2. After exposure to the intervention of the genre pedagogy, potential changes traced from students' Texts 2 became a source of evidence to demonstrate the impact of the genre pedagogy in supporting Chinese EFL students' learning of writing. The results of students' writing outcomes also served to suggest how they were related to the changes to their teachers' cognition about writing instruction and teaching practices.

To sum up, among the diverse types of written documents, teachers' pre-workshop teaching plans and students' writing samples, together with the observation data, provided supportive evidence to the key data of interviews with the teacher participants. The remaining written documents supplement background information about the situation of teaching CE writing in the research setting.

#### **4.6 An Overview of the Pilot Studies**

Two pilot studies were carried out to make sure the research design was suitable to elicit adequate data from the participants. Specifically, they attempted to test the feasibility of the training plan for the genre approach, the instructional plans designed on the pedagogy, and the initial interview questions in order to modify them when applying to the main study if necessary.

The first pilot study was conducted in Australia and aimed to test the feasibility of the workshop design and the training of the genre pedagogy in particular. The choice of this pilot study resulted from several concerns. The first was related to the recruitment of participants. Concerning the workshop time and the requirements for selecting participants, there were few possibilities to find suitable participants to pilot the workshops in China. Second, the researcher hoped to get feedback from supervisors and other researchers in this area who were in Australia. Third, a university lecturer in Australia agreed to offer an opportunity to run the workshop pilot study in her class.

Overall, the context was convenient, accessible, and geographically proximate (Yin, 2003) for the researcher to pilot the workshop design.

Identified participants were a class of ESL/EFL teacher students who were studying L2 literacy as a course for a Master's degree of TESOL in Australia. Many of them were experienced ESL/EFL teachers worldwide including several from China, and therefore they shared many similarities with the teacher participants in the main research setting. Finally, the workshop was conducted in one three-hour-long lecture with the lecturer's support. Prior to the workshop, the participants were informed of the purpose of the pilot study, the use of audio recording, and the function of the data. They were also encouraged to ask questions at the end of the workshop.

The findings of the first pilot study indicated that the initial workshop design was generally effective in helping teachers understand the genre theories and the design of the teaching program. Nevertheless, some parts in the original workshop design were deleted or added, to ensure the workshop design was appropriate in the main study. For example, the initial video clips contained information about the process approach because it was closely related to the genre approach. It was replaced with warm-up discussions about the genre approach to avoid possible confusion by the teacher participants. Meanwhile, the order of some activities was adjusted, so that the teachers could develop their understanding about the genre theories in a step-by-step sequence. Furthermore, the necessity of offering students scaffolding was stressed in the stage of Joint Construction of Text, with more detailed instructions on interactional scaffolding strategies to improve teachers' understanding and confidence in providing students with immediate assistance in teaching practice.

However, the first pilot study only demonstrated the feasibility of the workshop training on the genre approach, but not the feasibility of the instructional plans, mainly due to the difficulties in finding suitable students. While some of the teacher participants in the first pilot study had similarities with the participants in the main study, it seemed challenging to gain access to suitable student participants to pilot the instructional plans. In contrast, participants with similar

backgrounds (a teacher and her students) could be recruited in a similar context to the main study in China. As a result, the second pilot study was conducted to test the instructional plans and the interview questions as discussed in the following section.

The pilot study in China aimed to achieve three purposes: To test whether further modification was needed for the workshop design to suit Chinese EFL teachers; to test the feasibility of the teaching program in a normal CE class; and to investigate the teacher's understanding of, and associated response to, the initial interview questions. To start with, a teacher participant was trained in the genre approach with the revised design after the first pilot study and the instructional plans. On this basis, two observations were conducted to gather general information about the teacher's cognition about writing instruction both before, and after, the reception of the workshop training, and the understanding about the genre pedagogy in particular. These observations were audio-recorded using a digital recorder. Lastly, as it was designed for the main study, two interviews were conducted to test the teacher's understanding of the pre-designed interview questions.

This second pilot study was carried out at the same university of the main research setting, but on different campus for three main reasons. Firstly, a CE teacher Lucy (pseudonym), the researcher's friend, was willing to pilot the study. The close relationship with her meant the researcher had no concern about the need for trust development, which was essential for data collection (Glesne, 2006). It was believed that more honest comments and reliable data could be gathered. For the same reason, Lucy could be trusted not to discuss the pilot study with her colleagues on the other campus, which might otherwise have had an influence on the main data collection. Secondly, the CE students' situation in this context was similar to the situation of those in the main study, which made the result of this pilot study more valuable to the main study. Last but not least, since students were on different campuses from those in the main study, it would reduce the possibility of information leakage and any influence on the validity of the data.

The second pilot study in China demonstrated that the revised workshop training plan and the original design of interview questions were feasible for the main study, and had not resulted in any change, but a significant change was applied to the instructional teaching plans. It was evident in this pilot study that the instructional program was overall effective in reflecting teacher participants' understanding and perceptions of the genre pedagogy. However, one model text for deconstruction purpose was deleted from the initial design. Time constraints meant that only one was achievable, although the researcher appreciated Humphrey's and Macnaught's (2011) recommendation to include both 'teacher-led' and 'student-centred' analysis of deconstruction. As a result, the teacher-led deconstruction stage was chosen, because the students initially had no similar experience of deconstructing texts. Students could better develop their understanding about how language functions in the model text when deconstructing under their teachers' guidance.

#### **4.7 Data Analysis**

As discussed previously and also outlined in Figure 4.1, the primary research data of this study includes interviews, observations and written documents of students' writing samples and teachers' pre-workshop teaching plans. Except for the teaching plans, the other three types of data were collected in two phases, depending on the conduct of the workshop trainings. In particular, the beliefs which teachers stated in their interviews were highly valued in data analyses, because investigating the potential of the genre pedagogy in this study focused on teachers' perceptions. Altogether, the analysed data consisted of approximately six hours of interviews, 18 hours of observations, 18 writing samples and six teaching plans.

Applied analytical tools included the thematic analysis of the data from interviews, observations and teaching plans in general, and other tools to further analyse themes which emerged in relation to TC and SFL genre theories. All recorded interviews and observations were firstly transcribed in the original language (English and/or Chinese). Transcription can boost and demonstrate the validity of the research by providing the researcher with an accurate account of the interview and thus is essential (Drever, 1997). Transcriptions in Chinese were then translated into English by the

researcher, who speaks Mandarin as her first language and is a qualified English teacher. When something was unclear in a transcription, the teacher participants were contacted via emails to verify the understanding of what they said. Then, thematic analysis was employed as the primary analytic tool to analyse the key data above. Thematic analysis is defined as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within the data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79).

The analysis process comprised searching for themes and framing them according to specific theories. Through coding and categorizing, links between data were recognized and themes emerged. For example, analysis of the teachers’ descriptions of typical lesson activities during Interview 1 revealed similarities and differences between teachers’ initial writing instructions, which were consequently reframed as themes (e.g., asking students to answer questions and arranging group discussions). Similarly, transcriptions of classroom interactions and field notes (see Appendix 8) were examined to determine both the content and the procedures used for the teaching of writing in each class. Related practices among the teachers were then identified as themes (e.g., what genres were taught and what aspects were focused when teaching a target genre). These themes were then examined with additional analytical tools as discussed below.

Shulman’s (1986, 1987) model of teacher knowledge and Borg’s (2003) concept of TC were used to analyse the themes of TC. These included the themes from both the interview and observational data, because TC can be revealed not only from teachers’ statements, but can also be reflected in their teaching practices (Baker, 2014; Borg, 2003; Carter, 1990). For example, observed changes in teachers’ attitudes to interactions and strategies for assisting students could suggest teachers’ cognition about the genre pedagogy. Comparisons between the results of observational findings and teachers’ stated beliefs could provide even further evidence in terms of the teachers’ pedagogical beliefs. Specifically, Shulman’s model was applied to identify teachers’ knowledge of their initial writing strategies, as well as teachers’ cognition about the genre pedagogy at a more

detailed level. Instead, Borg's concept was especially useful to frame the overarching relationship between the teachers' cognition about writing instruction and associated factors.

The explanation of TC about the application of interactional scaffolding strategies and the L2 instruction was made possible by analysing the transcription of classroom discourse. The notion of interactional scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005), which was developed from the work of other researchers (e.g.: Mercer, 1995; van Lier, 1996; Wells, 1999), was applied to examine Chinese teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy in post-workshop teaching practices, and the use of interactional scaffolding strategies in particular. Teachers' cognition about instructional language use was also reflected from the transcription results. All words of L1 and L2 in the transcriptions were calculated separately with the 'word count' tool in windows. The information about the tendencies within teachers' initial instructional language use, and the possible changes to this after their reception of the workshop training, was then collected. As a result, the teachers' beliefs regarding the L2 instruction, a concept proposed in genre pedagogy (Paltridge, 2001), could be indicated.

With the students' writing samples, Callaghan and Knapp's model of teaching the Discussion Genre (1989) was employed for analysis. Using this model, students' ability to control the schematic structure (*issue, argument for and against, and recommendation*) and linguistic features (*conjunctions and simple present tense*) could be tracked and discerned. Whether a writing sample covered the textual features above, and how those features were appropriately presented, were the major criteria for analyses (see Table 5.4). The purpose of analysing and comparing students' two writing samples, as discussed earlier, was to reveal the effects of the genre pedagogy in supporting Chinese students' learning of writing, and in particular, to investigate whether and how students' learning outcomes were shaped by the changes in their teachers' cognition about writing instruction and teaching practices. Hence, the changes evident in the students' writing outcomes were also compared with the changes to their teachers' cognition concerning their own writing instruction.

Not all of the students' writing samples were used. Eighteen texts produced by nine students were selected for analysis. For the purpose of gaining key information from teachers' perspectives, three teacher participants were chosen according to the degree (great, medium & limited degree) that the teachers had put the original intervention design into their teaching practices. After having identified the three teachers with different degrees of realization, students in their classes were encouraged to participate by explaining the purpose of the study and their participation. Those volunteers were divided into three levels (low, medium & high) by their teachers based on their different English proficiencies. Finally, from the three classes, three students were chosen (one from each level). As a result, nine students' 18 writing samples were selected for analysis.

#### **4.8 Ethical Issues**

A number of ethical issues were considered. To begin with, the study achieved ethical approval from the University of Wollongong and the research setting, a university in China, before the data collection. Next, informed consent forms with detailed descriptions of the study were signed by each teacher and student participant before the first observations proceeded. The research objectives, the procedures of the research study, and the participants' rights to withdraw any time were described in the consent form. The participants were explained that the results of their participation would not affect their status in the university (teacher participants) or their grades in CE study and performance in the CET (student participants).

The anonymity of the participants was ensured. Both pseudonyms and alphanumeric codes were used to ensure that participants' desire for anonymity was respected. Pseudonyms were used not only for the participants, but also for the universities in the first pilot study and the university as the research setting. Neither those individuals' nor the institutions' names will appear in any future research publication. Moreover, alphanumeric was utilised for the writing samples. Photos were taken for each writing sample. These photos, together with interview and observational audio records, will be saved for five years in a computer with password protection.

## **4.9 Limitation of the Research Design**

Three limitations were anticipated in this study. Firstly, data was collected from researcher's own 'backyard' which has the potential to complicate the validity of the study (Silverman, 2000) although a known context has the advantages of being familiar and convenient to the researcher (Creswell, 2007). Secondly, the data collection process was restricted to a short period of time before the CET. However, the decision to collect data at this time was also based on a respect for the reality of the teaching context in that writing was only taught as part of CE curriculum and was highly test-oriented. Finally, the result of the study cannot necessarily be generalized to other classroom situations as it is a single case study.

Despite these potential limitations, this study will nonetheless contribute to the areas of teacher education, teaching practice, SFL genre pedagogy and TC. The research findings will be beneficial for teacher educators, because investigating the effects of the SFL genre pedagogy was based on workshop training in the pedagogy. This study's findings will also be useful for future research on TC about EFL writing instruction, the relationship between TC and teaching practices, and how changes to TC are related to students' learning outcomes. With regard to the information about the SFL genre pedagogy, the findings of this study can provide a starting place for future research and implementation in teaching practices. If the SFL genre pedagogy was demonstrated to be useful under such limited conditions, even stronger positive impacts can be expected when more time is devoted to professional training and implementation teaching.

## **4.10 Summary of the Chapter**

This chapter has provided an overview of the design of a qualitative case study into Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions of the SFL genre pedagogy in teaching CE writing in a Chinese EFL university context. Data for this study was gathered from the three major sources including semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and written documents. When analysing the data, apart from the thematic analysis of the data in general, Shulman's (1986, 1987) model of teacher



knowledge and Borg's (2003) concept of TC were applied in analysing the themes related to TC, the notion of interactional scaffolding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) was used to examine Chinese teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy and the use of interactional scaffolding strategies in particular; as well as Callaghan and Knapp's model of teaching the Discussion Genre (1989) being employed to analyse the students' writing samples. These sets of theoretical concepts enabled the researcher to determine how writing was instructed in CE classes and the possible impact of the intervention from the SFL genre pedagogy on the teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction and on their students' writing products, as well as the relationship between them. Finally, this chapter outlined ethical issues and limitations of this qualitative study.

The following chapter will present the research findings along with discussions. It includes three major sections, depending on whether the data was collected before or after the training in the SFL genre pedagogy that Chinese teachers received in the workshops. The first section discusses teachers' initial pedagogical knowledge of teaching writing before the training. The second section examines teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy after they had received the pedagogical training. In the last section, the results of the students' two writing samples are compared, with the purpose of exploring changes (if any) in students' writing outcomes after they had received the intervention of the SFL genre pedagogy.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **RESEARCH FINDINGS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

For the purpose of thematic data presentation, the themes that emerged from the interview and observation data are the focus in this chapter, while students' written samples are set out as supporting data. This is because teachers' statements and teaching behaviours were able to represent Chinese EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the writing pedagogy directly. The possible changes that appeared in students' post-workshop writing samples provide a broader perspective with respect to the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in the research context. As a consequence, this chapter reports the research findings in three sections, and presents the information in relation to the following three aspects respectively: Teachers' knowledge of their initial writing pedagogy; teachers' perception of the genre pedagogy after the workshop training; and changes in students' learning outcomes.

#### **5.2 Teachers' Knowledge of their Initial Writing Pedagogy Prior to the Workshop Training**

This section presents the findings from the pre-workshop data with regard to teachers' existing strategies for teaching writing. It aims to reveal Chinese EFL teacher participants' current understanding of effective writing pedagogies, while drawing on the framework of teacher cognition. Data included the teaching plans designed by the teachers, classroom observations, and interviews with individual teachers. Findings from student participants' pre-workshop writing

samples will be reported together with their post-workshop writing products later on in Section 5.4.

This section attempts to answer the first sub-research question:

*How do Chinese EFL teachers articulate their current strategies to support students' learning of writing?*

According to Borg (2003), teacher knowledge refers to teachers' general knowledge, beliefs and thinking as shaped by various contextual sources and teachers' personal education experiences. Specifically, Shulman (1986, 1987) classifies teacher knowledge as a model with seven categories. Based on these categories, which have been fine-tuned and modified to better reflect the teacher participants' knowledge of their initial writing strategies, the results of the present study are framed into four categories as follows: Knowledge of curriculum; knowledge of subject matter; knowledge of pedagogy (content and general); and knowledge of students.

### **5.2.1 Knowledge of curriculum**

Curricular knowledge refers to knowledge about the full range of programs and related materials designed for teaching of particular subjects (Shulman, 1986). It is the “pharmacopeia” that provides teachers with teaching tools to present specific content (Shulman, 1986, p.10) and exemplifies their teaching content. The main goal of the current CECR, since 2004, has been to develop students' overall communicative competence. However, interview data suggested that in the teacher participants' knowledge of curriculum, students' reading ability was regarded as the most important language skill by most of the teachers, regardless of the main goal set in the CECR. By contrast, writing competence drew limited attention from teachers, although it was supposed to have equal importance.

Most teachers (Amy, Cathy, Jane & Mike) firmly believed that reading skill was the most important of all the language skills, as it was the main resource for Chinese students' input information. Amy, for example, emphasized that “reading is the basic skill of the others” (Amy, Int.1T). Similarly, Cathy thought that “reading is the first step to master a language, to acquire an

L2". In Jane's view, "reading has occupied most of the input information" (Jane, Int.1T). Their idea was supported by Mike who also believed that "reading ability must be the most important [language skill]" (Mike, Int.1T). Yet the traditional method of regarding reading as the priority has its problems in the isolation and treatment of listening, speaking and writing as separate skills (Liao, 1997). Consequently, teachers' beliefs in reading priority mismatched the CLT approach, which embraces all four language skills.

Nevertheless, when provided with an excerpt from the CECR, and invited to provide their comments on the CECR's stated goal of using English "in a well-rounded way" and communicating effectively, all of the teachers agreed that the language skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation were all essential to achieve communication purposes. This did not seem to be in agreement with the argument from some previous studies, according to which teachers were found to have commonly misunderstood CLT as listening and speaking practice (L. Jin et al., 2005; W. Wu, 2008). This finding also suggested that teachers did understand the importance of writing competence as a component of communicative competence in achieving the CECR goal.

Teachers' beliefs in reading priority resonated with the requirements from the previous national CE curriculum, rather than following the current CECR goal launched in 2004 (see Figure 1.1). Fullan (2001) points out that "educational change depends on what teachers do and think" (p.115). As one of the three essential components (materials, beliefs and teaching approaches) in implementing a new program (Fullan, 2001), the change in teachers' beliefs is a must if successful educational innovation is to be accomplished. Yet reading as the priority, in the belief of most teachers', had remained unchanged, although the shift of the CECR goal from reading priority to overall communicative competence was supposed to happen subsequent to the trial version of the current CECR being released in 2004. "Changes in beliefs and understanding are the foundation of achieving lasting reform", according to Fullan (2001, p.45). In other words, the curriculum innovation demands that teachers adjust their existing beliefs and teaching practices. However,

teachers are less likely to implement innovations in their classrooms if curriculum innovations conflict with teachers' established beliefs (Orafi & Borg, 2008). Hence, it may be that the misalignment between teachers' beliefs and the CECR goal that was revealed in this study, is found to be a key cause of the unsuccessful implementation of the CECR innovation.

Smith and Neale (1989) argue that when developing curriculum for students, teachers tend to emphasize areas in which they are more knowledgeable, and avoid those areas in which they have relatively less content knowledge. In this sense, teacher participants' emphasis on reading competence was probably because of their confidence in reading, since all of their own English learning experience was a journey with reading valued over any other language competence in the national curriculum. To better understand teachers' overall content knowledge, their knowledge of subject matter is explored in the following section. Yet more evidence of teachers' curricular knowledge may also be revealed, since researchers (Grossman, 1995; Tsui, 2003) have argued that the seven knowledge categories in Shulman's (1986, 1987) model are sometimes integrated.

### **5.2.2 Knowledge of subject matter**

Subject matter content knowledge includes the knowledge of the content of a subject discipline (Grossman, 1990; Tsui, 2003). In terms of subject matter content knowledge, interview and observation data both suggested that no matter what the target genre was, teachers believed that teaching writing should cover writing techniques, text structure, language features and proper expression of sufficient (argument) ideas.

First of all, writing techniques were pointed out by most of the teachers (e.g. Amy, Cathy, Jane & Kate) as important teaching content, when being asked about their normal method of teaching writing in interviews. According to the teachers, writing techniques were associated with test-taking strategies and the understanding of constructing an essay with unity, supporting arguments and coherence. For example, Amy said: "I usually let the students mainly discuss about the writing content...to introduce some writing techniques...from macro and micro aspects to

consider in an integrated way” (Amy, Int.1T). Like Amy, Cathy stated that “because the writing style of tests is there, I normally follow its goal to teach students how to succeed in the tests...the way of connecting between paragraphs and the organization of the whole articles” (Cathy, Int.1T). The teachers’ serious concerns about test-taking strategies support findings of some previous research (Chu & Gao, 2006; You, 2004a). Observations provided further information regarding teachers’ attention to writing techniques. For instance, both Amy and Patty highlighted the aspects of “unity”, “supporting arguments” and “coherence” as the basis of effective writing in their teaching practices.

The text structure of target genres was another important subject matter content knowledge that concerned teachers. All the teachers held the view that any text was composed of a rigid structure of Introduction, Body and Conclusion. In Mike’s opinion for example, “writing instruction focuses on the basic structures...following the structure of Introduction, Body and Conclusion...and is based on some models of texts or topics” (Mike, Int.1T). Teachers’ classroom practices were generally consistent with their statements. For instance, Mike used a few model texts to explain ‘what’ and ‘how’ to construct Introduction, Body and Conclusion in writing texts of Argument genre and Explanation of diagrams (e.g. bar charts and pie charts). Similarly, Kate’s instruction focused on the three general features of a text structure. The general outline of a text was also emphasized in Amy’s and Patty’s classroom teaching.

On the one hand, all teachers are similar to each other in viewing text structure as important subject matter content knowledge; on the other hand, their guidance for students was quite different in their specific instruction foci. Some teachers’ instruction focused on the overall text structure (Mike & Kate). Other teachers focused their instruction on only one feature of the text structure, such as Patty and Amy. The above four teachers’ instructions were all related to the form of text structure, but varied in their focus.

However, all teachers shared a similarity in paying limited attention to the function of a text structure. For example, the importance of the specific social communicative purpose of the target

genre(s), such as the purpose of constructing an Argumentative text, was not conveyed. Researchers (Derewianka, 2003; Hyland, 2003b; Martin, 2009) argue that constructing a text is an attempt to use language to communicate with readers and accomplish particular social purposes. This communicative purpose of text construction is also in alignment with the main goal of the CECR as discussed previously. In the CLT approach, learners are not only required to learn the accurate form of the target language, but are also expected to use the target language appropriately in given social situations (Hymes, 1972). In the current study, nevertheless, teachers' lack of attention to the socio-cultural purpose was not only revealed in the observation findings. It was also evident in the interview data. When interviewed, no teacher noted the communication function of the text structure as important content knowledge when teaching a target genre.

The third significant subject matter content knowledge was related to language features of coherence and grammar. Themes emerged from both interview and observational findings. Teachers valued the language feature of coherence in a successful written text. Amy considered it as her students' weakness. For Cathy, "students need to develop vocabulary about transitional devices to achieve successful Argumentative writing" (Cathy, Int.1T). Similarly, Jane and Mike emphasized the importance of smooth connection between paragraphs by using conjunctions. Observational data provided relevant evidence. When Cathy summarized the standards that students need to adopt for an appropriate text outline, the logic between supporting evidence was one of the key points. She also showed students sentence examples with good logic, and examples with errors in logic, as her teaching focus. Like Kathy, Mike displayed sentences that used transitional signals efficiently on PowerPoint.

The achievement of accuracy in grammar was the other language feature that mainly concerned teachers. When interviewed, Amy and Mike specifically mentioned the necessity for students to improve their grammatical accuracy in writing. Likewise, Kate and Patty asserted that in order to reduce students' grammatical errors in writing, they normally requested students to do re-writing after receiving feedback from peers and/or teachers. Similar information was also obtained from

the observational data. The language features of syntax and vocabulary were the foci of Cathy's and Jane's writing instructions. The same ultimate goal reflected in both their classes was to increase students' writing marks in CET, as the more mistakes the students make in using language, the less marks they receive (see Appendix 12 for CET marking criteria).

The last subject matter content knowledge concerned the development of argument ideas and meaningful expression. In pre-workshop interviews, most teachers (Amy, Jane, Kate & Mike) presented their common ideas regarding the importance of having meaningful argument ideas and having them properly expressed. Likewise, they expressed their concerns about students' weaknesses in these aspects, and suggested that students should do more extensive reading to develop argument ideas in writing. Amy stated that the students' lack of reading resulted in the content similarity in their writing: "I think their writing skills can be developed by improving their reading ability" (Amy, Int.1T). To do more extensive reading was also the strategy recommended by other teachers (Jane, Kate & Mike).

Developing argument ideas and skills in expression were also established as the teaching goal in some observed teaching practices. For example, as discussed previously, Cathy's teaching focus was on improving students' logical expression to ensure the smooth flow of argument ideas in topic sentences. In Kate's class, a group discussion activity was organized to seek argument ideas. By doing so, argument points developed in groups were shared with the whole class for constructing a Body paragraph. Cathy and Kate were the only two teachers who were observed to assist students in developing argument ideas and expressions, even though according to other teachers (Amy, Jane & Mike), these two aspects of writing were their students' most significant weaknesses. It may of course be possible that the teachers did help their students with those difficulties, although this did not happen to occur during the actual observation period.

Findings regarding the teachers' subject matter content knowledge indicated the teachers' main concerns about what to teach in writing instructions, and also revealed the mismatches between teachers' stated beliefs and teaching practices, and their possible causes. Overall, the findings of



this section is aligned with You's (2004a) earlier argument, that Chinese teachers' predominant concern was about teaching correct forms and test-taking skills. Moreover, the gaps between teachers' statements and classroom behaviours suggested that sometimes, teachers' beliefs might not be fully and clearly expressed. For instance, Cathy's teaching focused on students' logical expression in topic sentences, although she did not note its importance when interviewed. It is also possible that the inconsistency might have resulted from the research methods (Richardson, Anders, Tidwell, & Lloyd, 1991) since opportunities for observations were limited due to the concerns about contextual factors (see discussion in Chapter 4).

Grossman (1995) asserts that teachers' content knowledge affects not only what they teach, but also how they teach. Having discussed teachers' content knowledge of curricular and subject matter, the next section explores the message about teachers' pedagogical decisions for teaching CE writing.

### **5.2.3 Knowledge of pedagogy (content and general)**

This section describes the teachers' pedagogical decisions made for teaching writing. The findings provided insights into the teacher participants' understanding of the effectiveness of their current writing pedagogies. Data included collections of teachers' pre-workshop teaching plans (see Appendix 10) and direct observations (audio records and notes taken by the researcher) because the characteristics of efficient teaching lie in teachers' abilities in both the planning and the teaching stages (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Interview data was also considered to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of teachers' pedagogical knowledge, when comparing that knowledge with teachers' classroom actions.

According to Shulman's (1986), teaching involves the transfer of teacher subject matter knowledge into a comprehensible form of input for their students. Teachers' pedagogical knowledge consists of general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. The former includes knowledge of general pedagogical skills (e.g. teaching methods, classroom

organization and management) while the latter refers to more explicit knowledge of teaching a subject by using appropriate techniques to make it understandable for students. These two categories of pedagogical knowledge are discussed together, as they greatly intermeshed in teacher participants' knowledge base. The discussion of teacher participants' pedagogical knowledge in this section is presented according to five aspects: Overall characteristics of teachers' classroom phases and teachers' education experience; classroom interactions; teaching resources; use of model texts; and use of L1.

#### ***5.2.3.1 Overall characteristics of teachers' classroom phases and teachers' educational experience***

Observation data suggested that in general, all teachers' classroom teaching still adopted a traditional teacher-centred style. By the early 1980s, literacy pedagogy had transferred from traditional teacher-centred positions to student-centred positions concerned with classroom interactions (Rose & Martin, 2012). The fundamental principle of successful language learning is teachers' guidance for students in the context of shared experience through interaction (Halliday, 1975; Painter, 1991; Rose & Martin, 2012). The main phase of class teaching often involves task-based pursuit by interacting with teachers/peers, which is crucial to the final achievement of students' independent working (Christie, 2005). Nevertheless, pre-workshop observations revealed that teachers' oral instruction dominated most teachers' classroom teaching of writing.

It was not evident that teachers focused their attention on how to pursue the goal of helping students to become independent writers. Teachers' limited approaches were derived from teachers' curriculum knowledge regarding material selection, and the pedagogical methods that teachers had adopted, which will be further discussed in the following sections. No teacher was observed to provide students with any materials. Teachers argued for the importance of reading in learning to write, and even regarded it as the most important language skill. Their belief was in line with Krashen (1993) who argued that writing practice alone cannot lead to the development of second

language writing skills, but requires extensive reading. Yet in teaching practices, the only source of information input for students was the PowerPoint. No reading materials were offered to students in paper handouts. Neither were other materials prepared for students' reference. Students sometimes appeared to have experienced difficulties in catching up with teachers' instructions when the information displayed on the PowerPoint was overwhelming.

To gain further insight into the constraints on teachers' application of effective pedagogy for teaching writing, teachers' expertise and related educational experience are discussed in the next part of this section. Borg (2003) argues that on the one hand, TC shapes teaching behaviours; on the other hand, TC is shaped in return by the accumulation of the teachers' experience. Teachers develop their personal practical knowledge from both personal and professional experiences (Clandinin, 1985). In the present study, more attention was paid to the impact of professional experiences, because investigating the potential of the genre pedagogy in the present study was based on teachers' exposure to the pedagogy in the workshops.

Interview data indicated that the teacher participants in the current study had educational backgrounds in linguistics, but lacked pedagogical learning experience. As shown in Table 4.1, all of the teacher participants had teaching experience of between 7 to 20 years and held Master's degrees majoring in Linguistic or English Education. However, except for completing a writing course as a part of Bachelor and Master's degrees, no teacher had received any professional development activities with regard to teaching writing. As EFL language teachers, none of them had any formal professional training experience in English speaking countries. Probably Mike's case mirrored all teachers' similar experience: "A writing course I learned when I was a student is the only professional training I've received so far" (Mike, Int.1T). Teachers' lack of professional training resulted from a lack of opportunities and motivations. Mike explained the situation in detail as follows:

There're some research workshops or conferences...It mainly depends on yourself. For example, when sometimes those activities do not take place in holidays, engaging in

them is related to the problem of changing classes which is a big concern. Even if it's in the holidays, there are still many aspects to consider...some reasons prevent you. (Mike, Int.1T)

Because of the barriers to accessing professional training, teachers relied on self-study and sometimes sought discussions with colleagues to cope with the challenge of teaching writing. The students' textbook was the teachers' main self-study source. Cathy shared her experience of learning to teach writing on her own: "From some of the guidelines in the course book... and also some of the resources online, I learned to teach writing myself... I also communicate with my colleagues..." (Cathy, Int.1T). Similarly, Amy and Kate mainly derived their writing pedagogy from the students' textbook. These findings were supported by some researchers (Breen et al., 2001) who stated that experienced teachers appear to develop "a personal repertoire of tried and favoured practices" (p.495). Probably because of the insufficient professional training experience, teachers (Jane & Cathy) thought their teaching of CE writing was not consciously informed by writing theories. Jane explained that:

... firstly because we ourselves lack knowledge of theory and knowledge of Literal Arts. Hence in the teaching practice, maybe what we can do is only to focus on the article itself rather than providing macro theoretical guidance to the students. (Jane, Int.1T)

By contrast, other teachers (Amy, Kate, Mike & Patty) believed that the teaching of CE writing was driven by theories, even though teachers were not sure what the theories were. That was because there were theories underpinning the designs of all those textbooks that teachers followed in teaching. For instance, Patty observed: "We just follow those textbooks for our teaching... But those textbooks won't tell us what underlying theories are applied to support that way of teaching" (Patty, Int.1T). Mike concluded that Chinese teachers' teaching behaviours were surely oriented by some writing theories, but many of the teachers were not doing so consciously. It is argued that language teachers need to be informed of current research and research-supported approaches to L2 writing to enhance their teaching preparation (Zen, 2005). The evidence above suggested that

the teachers probably lacked L2 writing theories as they were not aware of the theories underlying the content of their textbooks. However, teachers claimed that their professional development needs, and their willingness to learn more modern writing theories and related methodologies, were in agreement. Amy, for example stated:

Teachers should get to know the role of these writing approaches in the history, the advantages or the limitations...to know various approaches...then to try different approaches in classroom practice...to get to know their results and then combine their advantages. (Amy, Int.1T)

In the statement above, Amy pointed out the necessity for teachers to have knowledge of various writing approaches and the need to apply them in an eclectic way. “What teachers know and can do - affects all the core tasks of teaching” (Fullan, 2001, p.244). Teacher participants’ lack of sound knowledge in terms of L2 writing theories and associated pedagogies was very likely to affect their support for students’ writing development. Teachers’ expertise and related educational experience seemed to have suggested a need for all CE teachers to have professional training, in order to provide students with better support and finally help them achieve the CECR goal. This need became even more evident when discussing the other issues in relation to teachers’ pedagogical knowledge, which are described in the following sections.

#### ***5.2.3.2 Classroom interactions***

Christie (2005) emphasizes that the main phase of class teaching often involves an overt direction from teachers in a process of task-based pursuit, during which students shift towards successful learning through interactions. Similarly, Rose and Martin (2012) note that the task, together with teachers’ focus and evaluation, are the central elements of a learning activity. Teachers should be aware of students’ groups and create a suitable classroom culture to provide students with various opportunities to engage with new ideas via task organization (Mercer, 1994). According to who is involved in the interactions, the major classroom interaction forms can be summarized as teacher-

student (T-S, when the teacher only seeks answers from individual students), teacher-students (T-Ss, when a teacher talks with the whole class) and student-student (S-S, e.g.: group and pair work) interactions. To balance various interaction activities based on the purposes of each task or activity, namely participant structures, is an approach suggested by Hammond and Gibbons (2005). In this sense, task-based interaction with teacher guidance is the core of learning activities. Therefore, in order to help students become independent writers for a target genre, the teacher participants were expected to have certain tasks designed for students' collaborative study with peers, or by active negotiation with the teachers. Moreover, all interaction processes should be followed by teachers' constant evaluation and guidance.

Analysis of interview and observational data suggested three salient themes with regard to classroom interactions: Teachers' stated beliefs and their real pedagogical decisions with reference to classroom interactions were inconsistent; asking individual students to answer questions was the dominant form of classroom interactions; and following the steps in the process approach to teaching writing was regarded as an effective writing strategy.

Firstly, teachers asserted the importance of employing different types of classroom interactions to interact with students when they were interviewed. However, findings obtained from teaching plans and classroom observations did not provide consistent evidence. When interviewed, Amy and Jane emphasized group discussion as an important classroom activity in teaching writing. Amy described that "discussion is still the main way used in teaching writing" (Amy, Int.1T). Yet only one group discussion was found in Kate's teaching plan, and that was also the only S-S interaction activity of all teachers' teaching designs. The notion of teaching is a process of decision-making (Leinhardt & Green, 1986). Richards (1998) argues that experienced teachers draw less on making decisions at the planning stage. Rather, they have more interactive decision-making in their teaching. In the experienced teachers' classrooms in the present study, apart from the implementation of a group discussion in Kate's classroom as it was planned, randomly asking individual students to answer questions was the only interactive style that was observed.

To understand the relationship between teachers' statements and their real classroom teaching, Baker (2014) and Borg (2006) highlighted the importance of examining TC in relation to teachers' actual teaching practices. Limited information on teachers' application of classroom interactions in variety and frequency might reflect teachers' limited attention to interaction activities in their teaching practices to a degree. It might also suggest that to develop students' communicative competence was not the teachers' primary concern, although it is the main goal of the current CECR. Teachers' teaching practice seemed to have been divorced from their knowledge of the curriculum.

Secondly, a closer examination of teachers' classroom interactions proved that T-S interaction was the primary interaction pattern. In addition to this, teachers' attitudes towards such activity appeared extremely different. The majority of the teachers (Amy, Cathy, Jane & Patty) interacted with five to ten individual students throughout the whole classroom observations. Two typical characteristics were found from those interactions. First, asking individuals to answer questions was the dominant pattern of those interactions, and the most popular interaction purpose was to stimulate students' memory regarding writing tasks in the CETs. The conversations in the following excerpt were in evidence.

**Excerpt 1** (The dialogue Jane had with the fifth student, S5 in her class)

Task: Commenting on the model texts on the writing task of CET4 in 2009

- 1 Jane S5, 你怎么评论这篇文章? [how do you comment on this article?]  
S5: 应该还不错。[It's not bad.]
- 2 Jane “应该还不错”。那你给它大概几分? [“Not bad”... then what mark do you offer?]  
S5: 大概 11 分 12 分左右..... [Between 11 and 12...]
- 3 Jane 你们认为 average level 就是 11 分是哇? [Do you agree that the average level is 11?]  
Ss: 10 分以下.....5 分.....[Less than 10... should be 5...]
- 4 Jane 接下来大家以第一段为例都来看一下。[Let's read the first paragraph as an example...]

In Excerpt 1, Jane attempted to provide students with a more concrete sense of good CET written texts by showing CET model texts with various ranks. It seemed that Jane did not care about S5's or Ss' (the students of the whole class) response very much in this dialogue. Whether this task was at a level of difficulty which would properly challenge the students was not regarded as important, as no explanation was required from the students. Sharpe (2001) points out that asking different kinds of questions is a way of successfully providing assistance to students. Nevertheless, supporting students was sometimes not likely to be the teacher participants' interactive purpose, as can be seen in the T-S exchanges in Excerpt 1. Jane intended to provide the students with an idea of what constitutes a well-written CET text.

The teaching practices of Kate and Mike are two extremely different cases in terms of applying interaction activities, and as such make for notable comparisons. Kate was the teacher who applied one group discussion in teaching practice. She was also the teacher who adopted the most opportunities to interact with individual students. Twenty-one out of 25 students in her class were invited to respond to her questions in pre-workshop teaching. On the contrary, Mike was the teacher who dominated the whole class, and presented writing knowledge without any interaction with his students. It is likely that Kate held more positive beliefs towards classroom interaction than Mike.

To some extent, the significant difference between teachers' performance in interaction activities reflected teachers' beliefs in its pedagogical effectiveness. In CLT, a series of tasks are supposed to be set for students to help them acquire communicative competence (X. Li, 1984). By using different types of interaction activities, teachers are able to adjust the levels of support they provide to students according to students' needs, and push students to work independently (Maloch, 2002). Among the various elements which create obstacles in achieving Chinese students' communicative competence, teachers are the most important element in changing any unfavourable conditions (Liao, 1996). Observational data revealed the lack of variety in forms of interaction, and the existence of considerable difference between teachers' performance as



discussed above. Kate's performance provided evidence of her strong belief in the benefits of students' engagement. By contrast, Mike's performance suggested that he believed teachers should play traditional roles as knowledge providers, where the students were receivers of knowledge. However, the current thesis takes the view that students learn more effectively through active engagement in communicating with language than passively receiving information from teachers (Snow, 1996). Therefore, Kate's students tended to access more effective learning opportunities, compared with the students in Mike's class.

The last theme was related to teachers' belief in the usefulness of the process approach in teaching writing. However, this belief was not fully consistent with the observed results because, as the main component of the process approach, the teachers' roles as providers of guidance in interactions were not evident in classroom teachings. The main point which distinguishes the process approach from other approaches is its view of writing as a process of pre-writing, drafting, revising and publishing. This routine of learning and teaching writing was reported as a helpful strategy in teachers' interviews, although the teachers did not explicitly note it as the process approach. For instance, Kate and Patty argued that to make students engage in a process of writing, revising, rewriting...was "the best way" (Patty, Int.1T) to support students' writing development. Jane's view was similar. As she put it: "After writing, [students] may discuss with their peers as well as their teachers...based on the peers' and the teacher's feedback, they can rewrite with more careful consideration...to practice writing repeatedly" (Jane, Int.1T).

Nevertheless, this writing process was not as obvious in the classroom observations as was commented by the teachers. In the process approach, writing is learned through many interaction activities with peers (Susser, 1994). Yet except for one group discussion (in Kate's class), no interaction occurred between students. In return, information in relation to teachers' intervention and guidance during students' writing learning process was limited. The characteristics of the process approach were not clearly observed in the observations might be due to inadequate observation opportunities. There was also a possible inconsistency between teachers' statements

and their actual classroom practices because the time assigned to teaching writing was very limited.

The last feature of the process approach to be considered was related to the writing techniques. To master control of writing techniques is set as the goal of the process approach (Hyland, 2003b). It was discussed in Section 5.2.2 that writing techniques drew most of the teachers' attention (Amy, Cathy, Jane & Kate).

To sum up, teachers' beliefs that writing was a process of pre-writing, drafting, revising and publishing demonstrated that they valued the process approach, though it was not evident in their teaching practices, and it was possible that they were unaware of the underlying principles.

#### ***5.2.3.3 Teaching resources***

Interview data shows that teachers' resources for teaching writing included textbooks, the internet, students' writing products and materials teachers accumulated from their own learning experience. First of all, textbooks from English majors were pointed out as one of the main resources employed for teaching (Cathy, Kate & Patty). The designs of two teaching plans were based on textbooks (Amy's & Kate's plans). It is interesting that when teachers stressed how helpful students' textbooks were as their teaching resource, the textbooks they referred to were not CE textbooks but the textbooks from their previous students whose major was in English. Half of the teachers (Cathy, Kate & Patty) had their experience of teaching academic writing to students who were majoring in English, and who learned English writing as a separate course. Teachers had similar descriptions of the challenges and benefits they received from that teaching experience.

“From the textbook...I learned some of the guidelines of teaching writing” (Cathy, Int.1T).

“In a term, I taught a writing course. I had a book about how to teach writing. So I learned something about [how to teach writing]” (Kate, Int.1T).

“I learned on my own and I even lectured on academic writing...The most challenging thing was the textbook about teaching writing” (Patty, Int.1T).

The above transcriptions are teachers’ original descriptions in English. Teachers’ descriptions indicated that the textbooks played a guiding role in these three teachers’ teaching of writing. To design the teaching plan for pre-workshop observation, Kate selected her teaching materials from that textbook: “Ah, in this book, different types of Introduction are introduced. I copied that...I just choose some ways they can use in writing especially in their examinations” (Kate, Int.1T). Similarly, Cathy “just followed the textbook...step by step...didn’t think of teaching creatively” (Cathy, Int.1T). This finding appears to be in alignment with Borg’s (2001) argument that for teachers who lacked confidence in knowledge about teaching writing, they might minimize writing work and defer discussion. Borg’s concept might also help to explain teachers’ reluctance in employing group discussion in their teaching practices, although they stated their beliefs in its value (see discussion in last section).

Besides textbooks, the internet, students’ writing products and the materials accumulated in teachers’ learning experiences were the other major teaching resources. The internet was the second most important resource from which teachers (Jane, Mike & Patty) selected their teaching materials. When the teachers were preparing to teach writing, they often accessed the internet to seek for useful materials. Students’ writing products and some materials that teachers accumulated in their own learning experience were the other sources of teaching writing. Some typical expressions in students’ writing, both positive and negative, were chosen as exemplars for the whole class, as observed in Cathy’s and Jane’s classes. Teachers, such as Mike, also provided their students with similar resources, such as good examples of expressions (e.g. frequently used phrases, sentences, and structural features) which came from his own experience of learning to write.

It appeared that the teacher participants generally drew on what they learnt from their own experience of learning writing. Researchers (Breen et al., 2001) have pointed out that the sources

of teaching knowledge include training, learning experience and the teachers' own teaching careers. The importance of the teachers' learning experiences and their teaching careers were clearly evident in the present study. A close examination of the use of teaching resources revealed that their main purpose was to locate model texts, which is discussed in the next section.

#### ***5.2.3.4 Use of model texts***

Both interview and observational data indicated that model texts were adopted for the purposes of imitation and improvement in accuracy in language features by all of the teachers. To locate suitable models for imitation was the main purpose of using model texts for most of the teachers (Amy, Kate, Mike & Patty). For example, Mike argued: "All those basic expressions start from imitating others. Hence, students must read how others express...then learn to express themselves by imitating to fulfil their own writing" (Mike, Int.1T). In Kate's classroom, she presented four ways of writing an Introduction paragraph with concrete examples, such as the following two.

1. There is probably no life of our type in the solar system outside Earth itself. But is there life on planets circling other stars?
2. What is love? How do we know that we are really in love? When we meet that special person, how can we tell that our feelings are genuine? Love is difficult to define. It involves mutual respect, the desire to give rather than take, and the feeling of being wholly at ease.

By using the two examples above, Kate tried to explain that asking question(s) was an effective way of constructing an Introduction paragraph. In other words, similarly to Mike's statement, Kate valued very highly the function of imitating model texts in teaching writing.

The other purpose of using model texts was to show students concrete examples in an attempt to help them improve their awareness of syntax or grammatical accuracy. As discussed in Section 5.2.2, both Cathy's and Jane's teaching aimed to increase students' awareness of accurate

language expression in pre-workshop teaching. Sentence examples with errors were selected from students' writing products and analysed with the whole class.

In the product approach, the teaching of writing is mainly focused on the structure of language use and model imitation; writing is primarily about linguistic knowledge emphasizing accuracy (Hyland, 2003b, 2003c; Richard, 1985). In this sense, teaching writing by emphasizing the imitation of model texts, or the importance of grammar accuracy in the final written product, are typical signs of the product approach. Therefore, it was evident that the product approach was still popular in teacher participants' classes.

#### **5.2.3.5 Use of L1**

Teachers' beliefs regarding instruction language use were not explicitly expressed by the teachers during the interviews, but rather were demonstrated in their classroom practices. This emerged as a significant theme when transcribing the observational data, despite the interview questions not being designed to such elicit information about teachers' language preference in the classroom.

Observational data revealed that L1 was frequently used in most teachers' classes. For the purpose of developing students' communicative competence, communicative explanation emphasizes the importance of students' interaction with target language in a social context (Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). However, in the present study, most of the classroom teachings in pre-workshop observations seemed to be L1-driven. Three teachers' (Amy, Jane & Mike) classroom instructions were dominated by L1, such as the dialogue in Excerpt 1 from Jane's classroom discourse; and two teachers' (Cathy's & Patty's) instructions combined L1 and the target language. In return, the students of those teachers' also used L1 frequently when responding to their teachers.

Contrasting with the significant L1 use in the other five teachers' classroom teaching, Kate's writing instruction was dominated by English. Likewise, her students all tried to respond to her in English. This result was surprising when compared with the frequency of L1 use in other classes, as Kate emphasized that her students' English proficiency was comparatively lower than those

from the other five classes. It might suggest the powerful impact of teachers' beliefs and/or habits regarding instruction language use in classroom teaching and learning. Language for classroom discourse was decided by the teachers' choice of instruction language, rather than according to students' English proficiency.

Previous studies (e.g. Antón & Dicamilla, 1999; Borg, 1998) suggested a strategy of encouraging students to refer to their L1 use in grammar teaching. However, for the purpose of developing students' communicative competence, it is important to have students involved in contextual interactions in a target language (Hymes, 1972; Snow, 1996; Widdowson, 1978). One of the key features of CLT is to ensure that students are sufficiently exposed to the target language (Liao, 1997). They are expected to avoid using L1 during class (L. Jin et al., 2005; W. Wu, 2008). In contrast, L2-based strategies have great potential for achieving successful communicative learning (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). Language acquisition is best promoted through meaningful use of the language to communicate in both oral and written forms (Zen, 2005). Considering the current CECR goal of developing students' overall communicative competence, it is probably the use of English, rather than L1, in classroom teaching and learning that is able to more effectively assist students to achieve the goal.

#### **5.2.4 Knowledge of students**

The successful transformation of subject matter knowledge into representational forms that are comprehensible to students requires an adequate understanding of students themselves (Tsui, 2003). The teacher participants' knowledge of their students concerns two major aspects: Students' needs in writing development; and students' passive attitudes towards learning writing.

Teachers' knowledge of students' writing learning needs could be summarized into three important respects with regard to language expression, argument ideas and L1 influence, although they were not necessarily pointed out directly by all teachers in interviews. First, students should improve their language expression (Amy, Kate & Mike). For example, Amy described when

being asked about her students' writing development needs: "...for example, the coherence...also some grammar mistakes...vocabulary, of course...they don't have enough reading. As a result, they can only accumulate very little vocabulary" (Amy, Int.1T). It is clear in Amy's view that students should improve their language skills including vocabulary, grammar and coherence.

Second, students should extend their reading to develop argument ideas in writing (Amy, Jane & Kate). Amy pointed out that students' lack of reading resulted in a content similarity in their writing: "...because of students' lack of reading...they haven't their own ideas or thoughts. I think their writing skills can be developed by improving their reading ability" (Amy, Int.1T). Jane and Kate echoed her view. As Jane described: "They seem to have no argument ideas...I think that's mainly because they haven't got enough reading accumulation" (Jane, Int.1T).

Last, L1 influence was another major writing difficulty experienced by students (Cathy & Jane). Jane stated that "[students'] writing is largely influenced by L1 transfer...what they normally do is to think in Chinese then translate into English" (Jane, Int.1T). Accordingly, students were unable to achieve good writing products due to their high dependency on L1 in writing expression, and the differences of L1 from the target language.

Based on their understanding of students' writing development needs, most teachers (Cathy, Jane, Mike & Patty) believed that a bottom-up method of teaching writing, together with frequent practice and rewriting, should be effective in supporting students. Tan's 'step-by-step' idea could be viewed as a summary of the other three teachers' views. She explained: "Step by step, from the very easy tasks... maybe from sentence to paragraph and then the whole passage" to teach students how to write (Tan, Int.1T). Jane's statement below is typical:

I think the most important thing is their interests in writing and their perseverance to keep practicing their writing...writing is not something only individual but more often occurs in groups. After writing, they may have peer discussion or communicate with their teachers about the mistakes they made in their drafts. Based on the peers' and the

teacher's feedback, they can rewrite with careful consideration, practice repeatedly, practice to write...or write based on repeated corrections. (Jane, Int.1T)

Jane's comment points out the necessity of discussion and accuracy. In particular, she highlights the importance of rewriting after receiving feedback from peers and the teacher.

Teachers' descriptions of students' writing learning needs often did not reflect the ideals of the aforementioned pedagogies, and were often of incongruous value. On the one hand, teachers thought their students had difficulties in language expression, finding argument ideas, and avoiding L1 influence; on the other hand, the pedagogical ideas that teachers asserted were not sufficient or practical enough to meet students' needs. To learn writing techniques is surely helpful for test preparation purposes, but in itself it is no solution for addressing any of the three writing difficulties discussed above. Similarly, if the purpose of rewriting focuses on the language forms, it might be useful in correcting grammatical errors, but it is of limited effectiveness in developing argument ideas and improving other aspects of language expressions. Even though teaching writing in a step-by-step manner sounds ideal, it is an unachievable ideal, as very limited time is assigned to the teaching of CE writing. The idea of frequent writing practice is not practical for the same reason of time constraints. And paradoxically, although Jane expressed concern about the L1 influence on students' writing, her own writing instruction was L1 dominated (see Section 5.2.3.5). Consequently, there was a lack of relevant support for students' writing needs.

One observation may not be sufficient evidence to argue that teachers' knowledge about their students' needs did not shape their teaching practices. However, it at least indicated that to some extent, what teachers teach does not necessarily satisfy what students need. One quote from Mike might be helpful to explain this mismatch: "Our most important purpose [of teaching writing] is to help students pass CET4 and CET6. To improve their language application ability in reality is the next step" (Mike, Int.1T). Nevertheless, because for most of the students, their attendance at CET exams is the hallmark of completing two-year's CE study (see Section 1.2.1 for CECR),



“the next step” (Mike, Int.1T) that Mike refers to probably will never happen in CE classes. Such a situation of learning and teaching CE writing supports Fang’s (2010) argument, that Chinese students learn English just to pass exams and their teachers’ lectures focus on assisting students to achieve this goal. As such, students’ writing difficulties were unable to be fully assisted, even though teachers were aware of their students’ needs.

Another aspect of teachers’ knowledge of students was related to students’ passive learning attitudes towards learning writing. It was acknowledged by all of the teachers as the main issue when responding to questions about students’ unsuccessful writing development. Amy commented that students’ attitudes towards learning writing were only to “cope with...they lack active participation in writing” (Amy, Int.1T). On the other hand, efforts made by teachers to correct this passive learning attitude were not evident in their attempts to motivate their students to learn writing. For example, as discussed earlier, few activities were designed to encourage students’ engagement. Aside from one example of group work found in Kate’s class, T-S interaction was the only activity style employed by most of the teachers to encourage student engagement.

### **5.2.5 Summary**

The analysis reported in Section 5.2 indicated that teacher participants’ knowledge of their current strategies in teaching writing was shaped by four categories: Knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of subject matter, pedagogical knowledge, and knowledge of students. Similar to many other EFL contexts, it seemed that knowledge of educational contexts is the most crucial factor that shapes teachers’ actual teaching practices, especially when teachers must prepare students for the high-takes CET.

Tsui (2003) argues that pedagogical content knowledge is central to successful teaching. It is the transformation of subject matter knowledge into representational forms that requires not only an understanding of subject matter knowledge, but also knowledge of learners, curriculum, context

and pedagogy. As evident in the analysis of pre-workshop findings, the teachers' subject matter knowledge mainly included writing techniques, the forms of the text structure, language features, and the development of argument ideas and meaningful expressions. To make the above features comprehensible to students, model texts were widely chosen from resources such as textbooks, the internet, students' writing products and teachers' accumulation from their own study experience. Meanwhile, L1 was frequently used in writing instruction by most teachers (except for Kate). Significantly, the traditional teacher-centred teaching style still dominated most teachers' teaching practices, whereas students' active engagement was not encouraged. On the other hand, teachers were concerned about students' passive learning attitude, and regarded it as an obstacle to their writing development. Teachers also emphasized students' need to widen and enhance reading and to improve expression at language level.

Comparisons between teachers' knowledge of pedagogy and knowledge of students indicated that teachers were unlikely to have carefully considered students' learning needs when they took teaching actions. Sometimes teachers' methods were even contrary to students' needs, a phenomenon which could be summarized in three major mismatches. First, while teachers pointed out students' need to undergo wider reading, and how this was closely related to learning writing, no reading materials were provided to students in classroom observations. Second, although having criticized the obstacle of the influence of L1 on students' writing construction, L1 was widely adopted for writing instruction in most classes. Finally, although teachers were aware of students' passive learning attitudes towards learning writing, most classes ran according to the teacher-centred mode.

In general, it is evident that the product approach was still popular in the teachers' writing instruction, while the process approach was also valued in supporting students' writing development. Therefore, of the various pedagogies available, teaching approaches most closely resembled the characteristics of the genre approach, because the genre approach integrated the product and process approach to some extent (Badger & White, 2000). However, the social

communication purposes of writing tasks in particular contexts, the key concept in the genre approach, were not valued by the teachers. The teacher participants seemed to have lacked pedagogical knowledge and related training. Their writing instructions were not consciously or sub-consciously informed of writing theories. As a consequence, it was valuable to investigate the potential of the genre pedagogy in a Chinese context after having teachers trained in the pedagogy. The findings of the intervention are discussed in the following section.

### **5.3 Teachers' Perceptions of SFL genre pedagogy after the Workshop Training**

Language teachers' cognition about instruction is closely related to their beliefs regarding language teaching and learning (Borg, 2003). TC shapes and informs classroom practices (Borg, 2003; Breen et al., 2001; Shulman, 1987). To explore teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy, therefore, it is important to examine teachers' expressed beliefs in, as well as their understandings of, the pedagogy as reflected in their classroom teaching. This section reports on findings drawn from Phase 2 interviews (Interview 2) with individual teachers, and classroom observations of teachers' genre-oriented writing instructions.

The whole section consists of four major sub-sections dealing with teacher participants' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy. It starts with a brief overview of teachers' knowledge of the genre pedagogy after attending the workshop trainings. It is then followed by a discussion on findings of teachers' cognition about the pedagogical model of the genre approach in three further separate sections, comprising teachers' beliefs regarding the three stages of the implementation model, namely Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction. In analysing teachers' cognition, Borg's (2003) model of TC was employed as the key framework by which those findings of TC could be categorized. In addition, Shulman's (1987) model of teacher knowledge was used to frame teachers' understanding of the genre pedagogy in more detail, in particular to

frame their thoughts of adapting this pedagogy into their contexts. Ultimately, this section aims to answer the second research sub-question:

*How do Chinese EFL teachers make sense of the genre pedagogy to effectively support students' learning of writing?*

### **5.3.1 TC about the genre pedagogy**

As discussed in the previous two chapters, Borg (2003) states that TC refers to “what teachers think, know, and believe and the relationships of these mental constructs to what teachers do in the language teaching classroom” (p.81). This broad definition of TC was employed in the present study to identify teacher participants’ cognition about teaching writing. In particular, previous research has demonstrated that teachers’ beliefs regarding the pedagogical change, and their attitudes to the change, influence their teaching actions as well as the change processes (Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992). In other words, what teachers do in their teaching practice, and to what extent they apply pedagogical changes, are shaped by their belief in the pedagogy; thus, the extent to which the changes that take place are effective relies on TC. As such, how the teacher participants adopted the genre pedagogy into their teaching practices in the current study mainly depended on their knowledge and beliefs regarding the pedagogy, and the relationships of all their related mental constructs, including their attitudes and understandings of this pedagogical change.

Teaching begins with “a teacher’s understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught” (Shulman, 1987, p.7). Accordingly, to implement the SFL genre pedagogy requires teachers’ knowledge of the target genre and the pedagogy as its basis. “A central goal of the SFL genre pedagogy” is to provide students with “the linguistic resources” to achieve successful classroom learning (H. Chen, 2008, p.196). The three-stage teaching and learning cycle comprising Deconstruction, Joint Construction and Independent Construction (Rothery, 1994) is typically known as the instructional framework of the genre pedagogy. Underpinning this cycle are the Vygotskian socio-cultural theory of ZPD and the notion of scaffolding (Derewianka, 2003;

Hyland, 2003a, 2007; Lin, 2006; Martin, 1999). The major theme of Vygotsky's theoretical framework is to guide students through interactions (1978). This guidance contributes to the development of students' control over the schematic structure and their understanding of using appropriate language to achieve the social purposes of the target genres.

Equipped with the SFL genre pedagogy, the teacher participants are expected to assist students by encouraging their engagement in sets of interaction activities. Hence, when discussing the interview and observational findings, teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy was examined on the basis of its three-stage cycle. In addition, other fundamental features of interactions, scaffolding strategies and language functions were considered.

### **5.3.2 TC about the Deconstruction stage**

The Deconstruction stage in the three-stage implementation cycle aims to develop students' conscious knowledge of the social purpose, structure and linguistic features of the target genre (Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Gibbons, 2002). Model texts of the target genre are deconstructed to ensure that students can gain access to the texts and discourses to achieve successful communications when participating in a second language (Paltridge, 2001). In accordance with this, the teachers here would explicitly instruct their students in the knowledge about the form and meaning of the target genre by modelling.

Teachers demonstrated a range of beliefs when being asked about the effects of the Deconstruction stage during the post-workshop interviews with individual teachers (hereafter Int.2T). Overall, all teachers valued the method of modelling to teach writing. Amy described this method as "concrete, more targeted...and systematic" (Amy, Int.2T). Similarly, Kate commented that "deconstructing the model text must have brought them [students] intuitive feeling" (Kate, Int.2T). In Patty's view, "before [prior to the intervention], students might not understand why we had to follow this structure to write...the model text more surely tells them that this is the way...eventually, they consolidated their original ideas" (Patty, Int.2T). Kate and Patty, as well as

the other teachers, perceived modelling as beneficial in supporting students' writing learning. Yet, as shown in the following section when talking about the benefits of the Deconstruction stage, it seemed that the teachers focused on how it worked for learning the text format, while the social purpose of text construction was missing.

#### ***5.3.2.1 Perceived benefits of learning text format***

Most teachers appeared to have focused on the text format as the important content knowledge; however, the social communicative purpose of constructing texts received inadequate attention. For example, when talking about how modelling is useful, Kate explained: “[Students learned] what is needed at the beginning of the text...which is normally in the last sentence of the first paragraph. After that, they should...” (Kate, Int.2T). This quote indicated Kate's attention to the text form when modelling. Similarly, Mike was able to compare the benefits of the Deconstruction stage with his previous instruction, and especially explained how beneficial it was for the purpose of imitating the text format:

What I introduced to them [my students] before may be too general. Text structures always include Introduction, Body and Conclusion regardless of the differences between various text types. Regarding the language features, only some cohesive expressions are provided to them. Sometimes, such provisions are very chaotic. On the contrary, modelling makes the concept of schematic structure very clear. If they encounter similar expressions, similar articles or writing topics of this text type in the future, it'll be easier for them to carry out...There's the need of normative model texts or templates for students to imitate...for example, the forms, sentences and vocabularies. (Mike, Int.2T)

As can be seen from the above quote, Mike focused on three general stages of Introduction, Body and Conclusion in his previous instructions of text construction, and like Kate, he placed his attention on the text format. Nevertheless, Mike's focus on those three text structure features demonstrated what Callaghan and Knapp (1989) refer to as some preliminary understanding of

the features of schematic structure. Meanwhile, Mike's explanation seemed to have highlighted the importance of text forms, and his belief in learning writing by imitating and transforming those text features from a model text. This explanation reflected the important role of text forms in Mike's subject matter content knowledge. From the pedagogical perspective, Mike's belief mirrored the product approach to writing, which is primarily concerned with the proper forms of the final products (Silva, 1990). Yet, when talking about the benefits of modelling in the instructional experience, Mike did not mention how schematic structure worked for the social purpose in a text. This result might suggest that Mike did not consider this content knowledge as important in teaching a target genre. Very similar information was drawn from interviews with the other teachers.

Despite teachers' common appreciation of modelling in explaining the text format, the social communicative purpose of the text construction, a primary principle in the SFL genre pedagogy, was not regarded as important in teachers' subject matter content knowledge. Instead, teachers tended to avoid talking about the social purpose of producing a text. Patty, for example, stated that in order to avoid potential confusion about the differences between various text types, it was unnecessary to explicitly talk about the social purpose of a certain text type to students.

For them, Argumentation is Argumentation. It's the text type required in CET4 and CET6 writing tasks. When using the term Discussion Genre to talk about this type of text, they may not be able to respond quickly...If they're provided with many theories...for example, what are this type of texts written for, they may feel confused. In contrast, it's easier to be accepted if you simply tell them that imitating the format of the model text will help them to achieve better writing...access to better CET results. (Patty, Int.2T)

Patty's statement above indicated that in her belief, it was not necessary to explicitly explain the social purpose of text construction. She assumed that teaching students the communicative purpose of a text structure would 'confuse' students. It is evident that the teachers commonly did not appreciate the importance of the social purpose as content knowledge when producing texts.

The subject matter content knowledge reflected in Patty's statement was similar to that of other teachers, as discussed earlier in this section.

Similarly, the important pedagogical knowledge of 'explicitly' talking about the social purpose for producing different text types in writing instruction did not draw attention. This information suggested that Patty's belief was contrary to a major principle of the genre pedagogy: That the teaching-learning cycle is marked by explicit instruction (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Hyland, 2007; Martin, 2000). Both the knowledge being taught, and the expectations of teaching in this instruction model, are supposed to be explicit (Martin, 1999).

The quote from Patty also indicated that, in her understanding, the Discussion Genre was synonymous with Argumentation. Patty pointed out the Discussion Genre as the text type that was most frequently tested in the CETs, which was understood as Argumentation. This point suggests that, in Patty's subject matter content knowledge, the production of these two types of genres was for the same social purpose. However, researchers argue that the Discussion Genre focuses especially on the arguments from both sides of a topic issue, with recommendations for the topic from the author's perspective, while Argumentation aims to support only one viewpoint with logical reasons (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Derewianka, 1990). The Discussion Genre is a category of the Argumentation (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). These principles revealed Patty's misunderstandings of the two genres above in her subject matter content knowledge. In short, regardless of the emphasis on the principles of explicit teaching and setting the context in the training in the genre pedagogy, Patty, as well as most of the other teachers, did not seem to consider these principles as important pedagogical or content knowledge in teaching a genre.

Teachers' limited attention to the social purpose of the target genre was even more evident when they talked about the benefits of the genre pedagogy in more detail, with respect to text structure and language features, as discussed in the following section.



### *5.3.2.2 Perceived benefits of learning text structure and language features*

Teachers perceived that explicit deconstruction of model texts was beneficial for students with regard to the text structure and the specific language features of the Discussion Genre. Kate explained:

First of all, it makes the structure very clear. [Students learned] what is needed at the beginning of the text. They understood that they need to state the issue [of the writing topic], which is normally in the last sentence of the first paragraph. After that, they should analyse merits [of the issue]. [The guidance of] how to write merits was very specific...Students used to write just one sentence to state the merit after the conjunction of 'first' without elaboration. From the model text, they learnt the importance of having elaboration. Therefore, deconstructing a model text must have brought them intuitive feeling. (Kate, Int.2T)

Kate's comments here revealed her belief that, step by step, the students were guided to develop their understanding in producing a text of the Discussion Genre: From the schematic structure (the stages the genre moves through) to the language features (e.g. conjunctions), and including both the content and format of text construction. In terms of the structure, the instruction covered not only the overall text structure, but also the structures at paragraph and sentence levels.

Apart from the benefits of learning text structure and linguistic features, Kate showed her belief in the value of modelling in assisting students to develop their field knowledge. Similarly, however, she did not seem to have paid attention to the social purpose of the Discussion Genre. For example, she asserted in the quote above that "they [students] need to state the issue" and "they should analyse merits [of the issue]". This explanation reflected Kate's belief that through modelling, students became aware of the necessity of issue statement and elaboration. On the contrary, the social purpose of text construction was not recognized in the same comment. This finding probably suggested that, similarly with Mike, Kate did not consider the social communicative purpose as important when producing a text.

In addition to discussing the benefits of modelling in helping students understand text structure and language features, the teachers also provided various reasons for perceiving the stage as beneficial for learning writing. For instance, Jane echoed Kate's view above and recommended the use of more model texts:

If we think of the writing task in the context, our understanding will be in depth...Model text is a tool which can be used to explain all those aspects of textual features. The most important thing is the process. Maybe more model texts can be prepared [for teaching writing]. (Jane, Int.2T)

Jane's comment suggests that all textual features could be explained by deconstructing model texts. This belief was, in Jane's mind, somehow in line with the key purpose of the Deconstruction stage in developing students' understanding of the textual features of the target genre, including schematic structure and linguistic features. Thus, it was obvious that Jane, as well as Mike (see discussion in last section), were both supportive of modelling to teach students writing, but for different reasons. Their different purposes in applying model texts mirrored the differences in their pedagogical knowledge of teaching writing. Such difference between teachers' knowledge possibly indicated that teachers involved in the same professional training varied from each other in their accepting pedagogical changes, which is in accordance with Almarza's (1996) research finding. It seemed that Mike's emphasis on the accuracy of text form was shared by most of the teachers.

#### ***5.3.2.3 Perceived benefits of adapting the stage into the research context***

In addition to expressing their generally positive beliefs in the benefits of the Deconstruction stage, the teacher participants perceived that adaptations were still required according to their contextual factors, which was also influenced by their experience in implementing this stage into their classroom teaching. Framed by Shulman's (1987) knowledge model, teachers' knowledge that indicated their ideas for adapting the genre pedagogy model into their teaching contexts

(‘adaptation ideas’ hereafter) can be subsumed into three categories: Knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of pedagogy, and knowledge of students. However, some adaptation ideas were sometimes reflected across more than one knowledge category.

The first theme about teachers’ knowledge that emerged from their adaptation ideas involves teachers’ knowledge of curriculum. As indicated from teachers’ statements in Interview 2, their knowledge of curriculum consisted of three components: Textbook-based teaching, consideration of the CET requirements, and close integration with teaching reading. For example, Jane recommended using the CE textbook as a source of teaching writing as below:

Actually I’ve already adapted the instructional design into another class this afternoon. In that class, the model text of my Deconstruction stage focused...I used a text in the textbook. I compared that more difficult text with the model text in the original instructional design. Then, I designed similar questions for the model text I selected. In class, I showed it to the students with the questions. They were so surprised to realize that the text selected from the textbook is directly related to the articles in CETs. I feel it’s more effective and has left students with a more profound impression. (Jane, Int.2T)

Jane’s statement indicated that selecting texts from the CE textbook, and following them as models to teach writing, were fundamental in her beliefs about how writing was supposed to be taught. After emphasizing the careful selection of text and question design, together with accounting for the CET writing tasks, the textbook-based modelling was, in Jane’s opinion, accepted as beneficial in supporting students’ learning of writing. As such, although text-based teaching in China is criticized for being too traditional (see Chapter 1), it became useful when Jane appropriately chose the content based on her knowledge of her students, assessment and pedagogical choice. Additionally, Jane’s voluntary adaptation of the genre pedagogy into her own teaching in another class mirrored her strong belief in its value in assisting her students’ writing development, and her open-minded attitude to the application of pedagogical changes.

Apart from applying the textbook as a resource in CET writing tasks, teachers suggested that teaching writing should be integrated with teaching reading. As Jane stated: “If teaching of writing is combined with Intensive Reading, it’ll be much more helpful” (Jane, Int.2T). Patty’s explanation was similar but more specific:

When we have some discussions...If the discussions take place before students have done any reading, before the students have received any ‘input’ [from reading], how can they generate ‘output’? ... Reading is used to support the development of students’ writing. (Patty, Int.2T)

In these quotes Jane and Patty both emphasized the importance of teaching writing through the integration of reading. To some extent, the belief reflected here supported the principle of the genre pedagogy, that text reading is frequently used to build up students’ field knowledge (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). To develop students’ knowledge about how language works for social purposes in the Deconstruction stage of the genre pedagogy also relies on the reading of model texts. Moreover, Patty’s concept that writing production (“output”) was generated from reading reception (“input”) aligns with the view that Chinese EFL teachers regard reading as the most important language skill (see Chapter 1). The belief that writing builds up on the accumulation of reading is also clear. Similar evidence was also reflected in the local CE syllabus, which stressed the crucial role of “[cultivating] students’ strong reading ability” as the key goal (see Chapter 1 & Appendix 9). It seemed that teacher participants’ beliefs in integrating the teaching of writing with reading were not only related to their knowledge of curriculum, but to their pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of students as well.

The second theme revealed from Interview 2 findings was the strong impact teachers’ pedagogical knowledge had on their teaching of writing. Specifically, using more texts for modelling was understood as an effective strategy in teaching writing. Jane explained that “a model text is a tool which can be used to explain all those aspects [textual features]” (Jane, Int.2T) as discussed previously (see also 5.3.2.2). The teachers’ suggestion supports previous research

(Feez, 1998; Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011) that ideally, two examples of the target genre should be discussed in the Deconstruction stage: One is used for teachers' demonstration of the textual features; the other is used for students' own analysis of the features. The first one allows the teachers to pull apart the text, and to explicitly explain the use of linguistic patterns for specific social purposes. The second example can be used for students' own analysis, so as to develop their understanding built up from the first text example. Jane's idea, therefore, suggested that in her pedagogical content knowledge, modelling was helpful in explaining all the textual features to students during writing instruction. The application of more models could improve the effectiveness even further.

The last major category of teachers' knowledge generated from Interview 2 was the knowledge of students. In the teachers' view, some simple teaching content should be adjusted (e.g. to simplify the instruction concerning simple present tense), and it was necessary to adjust the teaching time and/or the length of model text(s) after having consideration of the students' English proficiency. Mike explained: "I didn't think of doing the exercise of focusing on verb tense. Since it is not a narrative text, there won't be any problems in the accuracy of verb tenses in students' writing products" (Mike, Int.2T). Consistent opinions were found in all of the other teachers' statements. Cathy, for example, explained: "Some knowledge like 'simple present tense', most of our students have mastered well enough. It thus only needs a simple summary for its function in the model text" (Cathy, Int.2T).

The statements by Mike and Cathy above reflected all the teachers' common opinions, that the teaching of simple present tense was no challenge to the majority of the students and, therefore, it was not necessary to focus on its instruction. Classroom observations consistently mirrored all the teachers' beliefs in adjusting the teaching of the simple present tense. All teachers chose to shorten or remove the task of the simple present tense (see Ex. 6 in Appendix 3) in their teaching practice. In other words, teachers modified the initial teaching plan based on their knowledge of the subject matter and students. Furthermore, teachers' beliefs in reference to the simple present tense seemed to suggest that teachers' attention had focused on its grammatical accuracy, rather than how it

functions in constructing meaning. By contrast, when teaching writing in the genre pedagogy, teachers need to develop students' understanding about how functional grammar works for social purposes in specific contexts (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989). This mismatch indicated the weakness of teachers' subject matter content knowledge with regard to the Discussion Genre. As a consequence, the removal of the simple present tense from instruction not only indicated teachers' knowledge of students, but also reflected their knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy.

In addition to making changes to the teaching content of the simple present tense, teachers (Kate, Jane, Mike & Cathy) pointed out the necessity of considering the length and quantity of the texts and time allowance when selecting model texts for deconstruction purposes. Mike thought:

Maybe some exercises are more suitable for younger students because my students' English proficiency is already high. Though their abilities in spoken and written English are still poor, questions designed for reading material which is only one-hundred words long is too simple for them. (Mike, Int.2T)

In contrast with Mike's view that the model text was too simple for his students, Kate preferred to reduce the length of the reading material for her students:

I know this model text is already very easy actually. But there're so many questions to answer. I'll choose a shorter text as a model to deconstruct...or maybe extend the teaching time a little bit...In short, to adjust the plan to suit these students better. It's mainly because of my students' special situation, it'll be better if the plan is applied in another class. (Kate, Int.2T)

In the cases of Mike and Kate, they presented their different opinions in terms of selecting appropriate model texts. However, their different opinions regarding adaptation, and their views about the simple present tense, were based on the consideration of their students' English proficiency. The generation of all adaptation suggestions was framed by the teachers' knowledge of their students. Therefore, it was helpful in guaranteeing the benefits of the genre pedagogy when instructing with this pedagogy in their classroom because "what may be effective in one

classroom with one group of students may not be so with another” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402). The application of any new pedagogical change can be successful only when the variable factor of students is fully considered in advance.

In spite of the generally positive view of the Deconstruction stage as discussed so far in Section 5.3.2, teachers were observed to have largely modified the original activities in the instructional design of this stage, which appeared to contradict their expressed beliefs. This inconsistency probably was closely related to teachers’ cognition about interactions, since most of the deconstruction activities required interactions (see Appendix 3 for the instructional design). Therefore, discussion of observational findings about how teachers implemented the Deconstruction stage in teaching practice will focus on teachers’ cognition about interaction activities. This discussion will occur in the following section after having looked at TC regarding the Joint Construction stage. Because the frequent employment of interactions along with scaffolding strategies are regarded as “central to writing development” during both the stages of Deconstruction and Joint Construction in the teaching-learning cycle (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011, p.100), integrating the discussions of teachers’ cognition about interactions in both stages will avoid unnecessary repetition.

### **5.3.3 TC about the Joint Construction stage and teaching practice**

The Joint Construction is “a critical point for students’ enculturation into academic discourse” (Derewianka & Jones, 2012, p.51). Here, based on their understandings that developed in the Deconstruction stage, students produce another text in the same genre through collaborative work with the teacher and/or peers. The teacher plays the role of advisor and editor (Feez, 1999) to mediate and scribe students’ contributions on the whiteboard or screen (Martin, 1999). Under teachers’ guidance, students are learning language, learning through language and learning about language (Halliday, 1979/1980).

#### ***5.3.3.1 Perceived benefits of developing argument ideas***

Most of the teacher participants said that the major benefit of the Joint Construction stage is providing students with opportunities to exchange ideas and to access additional knowledge from peers. Amy, for instance, explained: “Every student has various thoughts; they can enhance their own thoughts by constructing jointly [which helped them to] consider an issue comprehensively” (Amy, Int.2T). Likewise, Patty stressed: “I really like this process...students can exchange their information here. They also can discuss whether some certain information is important or not. Finally they can make their decisions on how to make a better elaboration” (Patty, Int.2T). Jane’s comments included more details:

I think Joint Construction is very good. [Students] can share experience with each other. For instance, they can have more ideas when they are brainstorming. In terms of Online Entertainment, some students might think of ‘waste [wasting] time’ which was common. Others then could present points that no one had mentioned. In this way, they could add information for each other. (Jane, Int.2T)

As illustrated in the quotes above, the core of all teachers’ appreciation of the Joint Construction stage is that students can share their knowledge of the topic and develop their understanding of the topic.

Meanwhile, it seemed that most teachers valued the collaborations between students afforded by the Joint Construction. This may suggest that to construct a text collaboratively with peers was the teachers’ preference at this stage, and they regarded this as more valuable, compared with working together with the teacher. Accordingly, teachers stated that several factors need to be considered when arranging students to write together with peers at this stage.



### ***5.3.3.2 Perceived factors impacting the success in instructing with the genre pedagogy***

Apart from appreciating the benefits of the Joint Construction stage, teachers expressed the belief that the success of implementing this stage was connected to several factors including: Students' participation level; teachers' immediate support; and the class size.

To start with, students' participation level was believed to have directly influenced the effectiveness of the Joint Construction stage to a great degree (Cathy, Mike & Patty). Mike commented that: "Students' co-operation is the key of success in this stage. If [students] can participate actively, it [this stage] must be very helpful" (Mike, Int.2T). This reflected that, in Mike's belief, students' participation is a pre-requisite condition of achieving successful implementation of this stage. Cathy's idea echoed Mike's: "The students' participations [in interactions] are very necessary" (Cathy, Int.2T). Specifically, Cathy suggested a way to address the problem: "When I realize someone is really passive in group work, I'll ask him/her to come to the front to present [the group ideas] instead of asking for representatives from the groups" (Cathy, Int.2T). The teachers believed that whether students were able to achieve a certain development largely depended on students' engagement level in designed interaction activities. To some extent, teachers' concern indicated that, based on their knowledge of learners, their students' engagement in interaction activities was not high in previous CE classes.

Furthermore, some teachers (Amy & Cathy) believed that teachers' immediate supervision and feedback were required. Cathy, for example, emphasized: "As soon as finishing writing in groups, we must provide them [students] with feedback, a response straight away. In this way, they may be conscious of the mistakes [they have made in their writing] directly" (Cathy, Int.2T). Cathy clearly showed her belief in the statement that offering students prompt feedback was essential to guarantee the value of group interaction. Her expressed belief indicated that in her pedagogical knowledge, teachers' immediate supervision and feedback was important to achieve the successful implementation of the Joint Construction stage.

In addition to the factors related to students and teachers, the contextual factor of class size, nonetheless, had an influence on teachers' beliefs. In particular, Jane highlighted the importance of an optimal class size in achieving successful implementation of the Joint Construction stage as below:

The process of arranging students to write jointly is an important step...I prefer to ask students to share their group writing with the whole class after group work. I think...it depends on the class size. The outcome must be better if it's a class of about 30 students.  
(Jane, Int.2T)

Jane's concern in terms of the class size revealed the impact of this contextual factor on her cognition about applying a pedagogical change. She believed that a class of about 30 students was a suitable size to apply the Joint Construction stage. In Jane's opinion, her (29 students) and Kate's (25 students) classes were a good size. Suitable class size was perceived as an important requirement to guarantee the successful application of the SFL genre pedagogy, based on Jane's knowledge of the educational context. Jane's view seems to align with many researchers' (Du, 2002; G. Hu, 2002; Siemon, 2010; You, 2004b; L. Yu, 2001) arguments, that large class size is a barrier to adopting the learner-centred teaching mode inherent to the CLT approach. This therefore suggests the necessity for the university administration to consider the class size. It is only in classes of appropriate size that all students are able to have fair communication opportunities which are essential for promoting the CLT approach, including the development of students' writing competence.

To a great extent, teacher participants' overall feedback about the Joint Construction stage appeared to be in agreement with the findings of Humphrey and Macnaught (2011). They argue that while there is little control to ensure that students work in the ZPD when writing collaboratively with peers, collaboration between students provides students with opportunities to consolidate their initial understanding of the writing content. According to the teachers' statements in the current study, teachers considered students' participation level (passive or active) as a vital

influence on the result of the collaborative work with peers. However, they strongly believed in the value of the Joint Construction stage, especially in reference to developing students' argumentative ideas, which were closely related to the writing content.

#### ***5.3.3.3 Variations in implementation***

Despite the teachers' generally positive comments on the Joint Construction stage, classroom observations revealed variations with regard to the extent that the teachers followed the original instructional plans on the SFL genre approach into their teaching practice. The result appeared to be inconsistent, to a certain degree, with the teachers' expressed beliefs. As discussed in Chapter 3, in the Joint Construction stage, teachers are supposed to arrange students to write together, tease out students' writing ideas, and provide students with immediate feedback. According to the teachers' actions taken to fulfil these steps, the different degrees of implementation could be summarized as full realization (Kate & Mike), partial realization (Cathy & Patty), and total removal (Amy & Jane).

Kate and Mike fully realized this stage and students collaboratively constructed a text, *Online Entertainment*, which was followed by teachers' immediate feedback. Kate organized students into groups to construct the text together. Group ideas were then shared with the whole class and accompanied by Kate's immediate support. In comparison, Mike chose to jointly construct with the whole class. He played the role of an advisor and editor (Feez, 1999) to modify students' writing ideas. He also worked as a scribe (Martin, 1999) to record and type a few key sentences on the screen. Students thus could access an additional source of meaning, which belonged to the additional semiotic systems and functions of other sources such as wall charts, graphs, diagrams and so forth (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) in assisting students' understanding. Overall, what Kate and Mike did in their teaching practice consistently reflected their stated beliefs in terms of the benefits of this Joint Construction stage.

In contrast with Kate's and Mike's full realization of the Joint Construction stage, Cathy's and Patty's application seemed to be superficial. For example, Cathy arranged a group discussion, but there was no session to report back students' discussion results. Patty delivered this stage in an even simpler way with just a few points of a Discussion Genre text as follows: "To state the issue first, and secondly, we need to provide arguments for both sides" (Patty, Int.2T). In other words, Patty had skipped the Joint Construction stage without providing opportunities for any actual collaborative work. Therefore, Cathy's and Patty's positive attitudes to the stage were not mirrored in their teaching practice. It thus was not much different from the other two teachers' (Amy & Jane) total removal of the stage. In relation to Amy and Jane, there was no evidence of teaching practice showing their expressed strong belief in the usefulness of the stage.

In short, teachers believed that the Joint Construction stage was valuable, especially in developing students' argument ideas. They stated a preference for employing group work during this stage, being followed by teachers' feedback when sharing the group ideas with the whole class. However, teachers' expressed beliefs were not fully reflected in their teaching practice. Most teachers were observed to have placed minimal attention on the Joint Construction stage, or even to have totally removed this stage in their teaching. This may be related to teachers' perceptions of the interactions, because learning in this cycle is through guidance and interaction in the context of shared experience so as to have access to sufficient background information related to the topic (Derewianka, 2003; Halliday, 1975; Macken-Horarik, 2002). By engaging in interactions with teachers' guidance, students can share information with others, which contributes to the development of their understanding of the topics. In order to better understand teacher participants' cognition about the genre pedagogy, therefore, TC about interactions and the degree of assistance they provided to students during the period is discussed in the following section.

#### ***5.3.3.4 Beliefs in interactions and interactional scaffolding***

That 'interaction is integral to language learning' is a major theme of Vygotsky's (1978) theoretical framework. Mercer (1995) states that it is teachers' talk and interactions with students

that enable students to learn from these interaction activities. Brown (2001) describes interaction as the heart of communication. According to who engages in the interactions, the major classroom interaction patterns include T-S, T-Ss and S-S (see discussion earlier in Section 5.2.3.2). Similarly, Gibbons (2002) argues that “the degree of facility of second language learning in a classroom depends largely on how classroom discourse is constructed” (p.16). As such, the achievement of L2 learning relies on how classroom discourse occurs in various forms of classroom interactions.

In the current study, all teacher participants perceived the value of interactions when being asked about their beliefs in supporting students in those interaction activities. Almost all of the teachers generally thought they had successfully assisted their students when interacting with them in the post-workshop teaching. For example, Cathy recalled:

When it was in group discussion and pair work periods, I feel that...maybe there's not enough verbal encouragement for them. However, when it was nearly the end [of the Joint Construction stage], I feel my interactions with the students were successful...  
(Cathy, Int.2T)

The quote above indicated that Cathy believed that she had succeeded in assisting students when interacting with them, at least at the stage of Joint Construction. Furthermore, Kate explained how she reduced the task challenge to suit students' English proficiency levels when initiating the interactions:

Seeing some of them [the students] looking up their dictionary, very obviously I got to know they probably couldn't understand some of the questions...At that time, I thought the teaching contents were rich, but to answer all those questions in limited time was difficult...When they were doing pair work...before they started their interactions, I explained those questions to make them simpler to understand. I did the same thing when there was group work. Every group was assigned a question for discussion to fulfil an explanation and an answer. I then checked their answers with explanations. Some of the

group answers were inappropriate. In this way, correct answers were given to them.  
(Kate, Int.2T)

As explained in the quote, Kate made adjustments to the original activity design. This resulted from her concern about the students' prior knowledge and experience which were considered as part of designed-in features (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). It was Kate's careful consideration of her students' circumstance that led her to make the adjustment to the original task requirement. Based on her knowledge of students, Kate's adjustment helped to ensure that the challenge of the task was suitable and her students worked within the ZPD. The designed-in features provide the context by which interactional scaffolding can occur (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005). Gibbons (2002) asserts that the cognitive challenge level of tasks should be appropriate to learners. "Learning will occur when students are working within the ZPD" with their teacher's support (Hammond & Gibbons, 2001, p.10). In this sense, Kate's students possibly had achieved a better understanding of the task because of her modifications to the original tasks.

In contrast to the satisfaction they felt with their assistance to students in interactions, teachers talked about the difficulties they had encountered in providing students with immediate feedback in the period of interactions. Jane, for example said: "I feel I'm not good enough in helping students when interacting with them. Some of the immediate feedback I failed to meet. I think it's related to my lack of preparation" (Jane, Int.2T). Similarly, Patty stated that she was not satisfied with her instruction result because she was not reasonably familiar with the method in the SFL genre pedagogy and the equipment of the classroom<sup>6</sup>. No matter whether it was teachers' lack of confidence (Jane) or knowledge (Patty) about the pedagogy, or teachers' unfamiliarity with available resources in the classroom (Patty), these factors probably had influenced the degree of support that teachers provided to their students.

On the whole, observational results with regard to teachers' employment of T-S interactions (occurrence) and related interactional scaffolding strategies (quality and quantity) were partially

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<sup>6</sup> According to Patty's introduction, the classroom that was used for her teaching that day was new to her. Hence, she was unfamiliar with the digital equipment there.

consistent with teachers' expressed beliefs. On the one hand, clear changes were found in their teaching practice; on the other hand, most teachers demonstrated limited interest in applying interaction activities, and some of them had experienced difficulties in assisting students in the periods of interactions. Firstly, changes were found at least in terms of the frequency of the T-S interactions, as well as the employment of associated interactional scaffolding strategies. Table 5.1 outlines the occurrence of T-S interactions in each teacher's class, which was counted based on the number of students that were invited to engage. Aside from Amy and Patty, most teachers chose to create more T-S interactions in their post-workshop teaching, compared with their actions in pre-workshop teaching. Among them, Mike's change was particularly significant as he generated 14 T-S interactions in his post-workshop teaching, whereas prior to the workshop, his own presentation dominated the whole class and there was no application of T-S or S-S interactions.

Table 5.1

*Observed Teacher-student Interactions*

Occurrence of T-S interactions (Student number of each class)	Amy (40)	Cathy (49)	Jane (29)	Kate (25)	Mike (49)	Patty (40)
Invited individuals for T-S interactions in pre-workshop teaching	5	10	8	21	0	6
Invited individuals for T-S interactions in post-workshop teaching	6	14	17	25	14	2

Teachers' adoption of interactional scaffolding strategies provided corresponding evidence of changes as shown in Table 5.2. According to Mercer (1995) and Hammond and Gibbons (2005), the most common features of interactional scaffolding include *elaboration*, *elicitation*, *recapitulation*, *recast*, *rejection*, *repetition* and *confirmation* (see Chapter 3). Identified interactional features of classroom discourse from the post-workshop teaching are summarized in Table 5.2, with relevant results from pre-workshop teaching for comparison. As illustrated, most teachers' adoption of interactional scaffolding strategies increased significantly in their post-workshop teaching. For instance, in Cathy's teaching, various interactional scaffolding strategies

were used 41 times, which was nearly six times greater than that of her initial teaching. Mike changed his strongly teacher-centred classroom teaching style in pre-workshop teaching and actively applied interactional scaffolding strategies 30 times, whereas initially he used none. The significant change in the use of interactional scaffolding strategies may indicate that Cathy and Mike believed in the benefits of teachers' interactional scaffolding for students' learning development.

In addition to the generally significant increase in employing interactional scaffolding strategies, the four interactional features of *elicitation*, *recast*, *repetition* and *confirmation* were most frequently employed by all teachers in both observations, while the other strategies of *elaboration*, *recapitulation* and *rejection* were rarely used. The application of those four strategies was extended in the post-workshop teaching practice. This result may be indicative that even prior to the workshop, teachers had a strong knowledge of, and confidence in, how to use those four strategies to support their students. It was also possible that the teacher participants accepted those four features as the most useful strategies in assisting students. By contrast, it seemed that the teachers may not have had a lot of practical knowledge, or perhaps confidence in, the use of the other interactional scaffolding strategies, or did not view them as effective in helping their students.

Table 5.2

*Observed Interactional Scaffolding Strategies in Teaching before and after the Workshop*

Interactional scaffolding features	Identified interactional features in pre- and post- workshop classroom discourse													
	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post	Pre-	Post
Elaboration	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	4
Elicit	10	9	3	10	4	9	9	23	0	11	8	2	34	64
Recap	2	5	1	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	4	10
Recast	4	1	1	4	3	8	5	12	0	8	3	0	16	33
Rejection	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Repetition	1	2	0	9	5	10	6	14	0	2	11	11	23	48
Confirmation	4	3	1	15	5	15	8	30	0	8	5	4	23	86
Total	21	21	7	41	17	43	29	81	0	30	27	18	101	234
Teachers	Amy		Cathy		Jane		Kate		Mike		Patty		All teachers	

Apart from the changes in teachers' application of the interactional scaffolding strategies, there is



also some evidence showing teachers' success in supporting students in T-S interactions through the appropriate use of those strategies. The conversation in Excerpt 2 provides a good example, demonstrating how Cathy successfully guided S13 to fulfil the task. After S13 gave the first example of Online Shopping problems or disadvantages, Cathy repeated S13's answer ("cheated by the seller") and confirmed ("Ok") as feedback. It was followed by "and what else" to initiate the answer for the second example. The same strategies of repetition ("Leaked and resold...") and confirmation ("Ok", "That's right") were used in Exchange 2. Cathy also recapped the answer by emphasizing the key words of "on the one hand" and "on the other hand", which connected the two relevant points and made the meaning flow. Eventually, Cathy helped students to formulate the appropriate response, thus helping them to deepen their understanding about the function of the conjunction.

**Excerpt 2** [Q4, Ex.3] (The dialogue Cathy had with the thirteenth student, S13 in class)

- 1 I Cathy: ...And what about those points of the supporting evidence of problems or disadvantages of Online Shopping? Just go into details...Let's invite S13, would you please have a try?
- R S13: First, we may be cheated by the sellers.
- 2 FI Cathy: Cheated by the sellers. Ok, and what else?
- R S13: Our privacy may be leaked and resold.
- 3 F Cathy: Leaked and resold to more people. Ok. 'On the one hand', 'on the other hand'. That's right, thank you.

Of all the teachers, Mike and Kate appeared to be two special cases that are worth noting for their teaching practice with reference to T-S interactions. As discussed earlier in this section, Mike made the most substantial changes in the application frequency of T-S interactions, and he was also found to have used different interactional scaffolding strategies to assist students. This was evidenced in Mike's classroom dialogue in Excerpt 3 below. At the beginning of the conversation, S4 could not answer Mike's question regarding the statement of the issue. Mike then narrowed down the scope for the answer, so as to adjust the task challenge in the second exchange and suggested "in which paragraph". In Exchange 3, Mike confirmed S4's response of "first" as feedback, then further elicited with "so how". In the next exchange, after several seconds of

silence, Mike provided a hint, “one...” to encourage S5 to speak. As S5’s answer was incorrect, however, Mike then recast the question and provided with the answer in Exchange 5: “First is to state the issue”. It was also followed by a clue from Mike (“Then?”) for the next question. With Mike’s support, S5 finally responded correctly in Exchange 5.

**Excerpt 3** [Q1 & Q2, Ex.3] (The dialogue Mike had with the fourth student, S4 and fifth student, S5 in his class)

- 1 I Mike: ... S4, how, in what way does the writer state the issue?  
R S4: ...
- 2 FI Mike: Ok, first, in which paragraph ... the writer states the issue?  
R S4: First.
- 3 FI Mike: Ok, first paragraph. So how? Firstly state the general phenomenon concerning about ... Now the second question.  
R S5: Discussion?
- 4 FI Mike: Yes, the Discussion is divided up into how many parts? ...One, ...  
R S5: Online Shopping phenomenon.
- 5 FI Mike: First is to state the issue. Then?  
R S5: Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of Online Shopping.

Besides the changes made in applying T-S interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies, Mike was the only teacher, except for Kate, who implemented the Joint Construction stage. He constructed the text of Online Entertainment with the whole class collaboratively. Transferring from a fully teacher-dominated class (see more discussion in Section 5.2) to a teacher-mediated class involves his students’ engagement (e.g. 14 T-S interactions). Mike’s pedagogical change in his post-workshop teaching was evident, and indicated his belief in the functions of interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies in helping students’ language learning. Gibbons (2002) argues that the Joint Construction stage is “teacher-guided” rather than “teacher-dominated” (p. 67). Mike’s pedagogical change thus also demonstrated his belief in the role of teachers, as proposed in the SFL genre pedagogy. On the whole, the changes Mike made in his post-workshop teaching practice turned out to be in alignment with his positive statement in Interview 2, where he expressed the view that with students’ active participation, the Joint Construction stage “must be”

very helpful to students' learning of writing (Mike, Int.2T). This convergence might reflect Mike's open-minded attitude to the introduction of the genre pedagogy.

In comparison, Kate's positive attitude to interactions appeared to be related to her firm belief in the value of student interaction, and the value of teachers' guidance during the interactions, which was evident even in her pre-workshop teaching practice. In her class of 25 students, 21 were invited to engage in T-S interactions with her and she used interactional scaffolding strategies 29 times to assist them (see Table 5.1 & 5.2). Furthermore, a group discussion, the only S-S interaction of all the pre-workshop observations, was found in her class only. Kate's higher adoption of both interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies was extended even further in post-workshop teaching. She initiated 25 T-S interactions, which was the most of all the post-workshop observations. In the same fashion, the employment of interactional scaffolding strategies increased sharply from 29 to 81 occurrences. Kate's consistent teaching behaviour in both observations clearly evidenced her strong belief in the pedagogical value of interactions in supporting students' language learning. The same was true for the application of interactional scaffolding strategies during the interactions.

Secondly, in contrast to the obvious changes in applying T-S interactions and assisting students in the periods (as discussed at the beginning of Section 5.3.3.4), most teachers (except for Kate) appeared to lack interest in applying S-S interactions in their teaching practices. Teachers largely modified the instructional design in their actual teaching practice, resulting in the removal of a number of interaction activities from the Deconstruction and Joint Construction stages, the stages that are considered as "central to writing development" in the teaching-learning cycle (Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011, p.100). For example, though students were assigned to fulfil the tasks with peers in pairs/groups (Ex.2 & Ex.4), Amy gave the answers directly without asking for students' discussion results. Likewise, Mike skipped the discussion activity designed for Ex.2 and only offered an explanation for the first question. The group work in Ex.4 and Ex.5 were both replaced by the teacher's provision of a direct answer. As discussed earlier, to some extent, the frequency of Mike's application of T-S interaction (14 times, see Table 5.2) demonstrated his uptake of

interactional strategies in writing instruction. However, his removal of suggested S-S interaction activities largely reduced whole-class students' opportunities of engaging in more interactions. Thus, Mike's classroom teaching tended to remain in the teacher-centred style as it was in his pre-workshop teaching.

Consequently, most S-S interaction activities in the original instructional design were simplified or removed in most teachers' classes. This observational result suggested some inconsistencies with teachers' expressed positive beliefs, as discussed previously. Teachers' attitudes to S-S interactions seemed to coincide with the observational findings from pre-workshop teaching practices, in which teachers showed very limited interest in applying S-S interactions (see Section 5.2).

Gibbons (2002) asserts that as a common pattern of classroom interaction, the traditional T-S classroom interactions can be very effective in supporting students' language development. Nevertheless, Gibbons also suggests the necessity of creating more varied interaction patterns. She supports McGroarty (1993) who highlights the advantages of group work over other interaction styles. According to McGroarty, group work was beneficial for L2 learners as it increases their opportunities to use the language in specific contexts for particular social purposes when engaging with their peers. As such, teachers' removal of most of the S-S interaction activities from the original instructional design, when putting it into their teaching practices, could have decreased potential opportunities for students' language development to a great extent.

It seems that two main contextual factors have constrained the teacher participants from putting their real beliefs regarding interactions into their teaching practices. Specifically, framed by teachers' knowledge of educational contexts and based on interview data, these factors include both the assessment system and curriculum. Because of the test-driven nature in the educational setting, the goal of ensuring successful test performance (especially CET performance, see more discussion in Section 5.2) appeared to be the strongest obstacle to introducing any new pedagogical change. The other barrier that appears to have prevented teachers from employing the

genre pedagogy was the university syllabus generated under the guidance of the CECR. While all students were required to attend the CET at the completion of CE study, very limited time was assigned to teach writing according to the syllabus. As a consequence, teachers were forced to focus on test-taking strategies and students' final written products, rather than the achievement of successful social communications. Kate commented:

I think it [the genre pedagogy] must be helpful. However, there're too many text types. We're not able to teach all of them. Instead, we only choose to teach those text types commonly appearing in CET4 and CET6 writing tasks, rather than to teach with the purpose of developing students' real writing competence. (Kate, int.2T)

Mike's statement below echoed Kate's view:

The genre pedagogy must be helpful in supporting students' writing development. However, it also depends on some other objective situations...If this methodology is applied in classroom teaching only once or twice, there won't be obvious significance. Because the curriculum, with very limited time assigned to teaching writing, is the reality, and we have to ensure students' writing performance in CET first. In other words, the genre pedagogy is ideal, but not feasible to help with students' real writing development. (Mike, Int.2T)

Patty expressed a view similar to that of Kate's and Mike's, but from a different perspective:

I think the genre pedagogy is more helpful if it is applied to teach writing to those English-majored students. I mean...as long as writing is taught as a separate course with adequate time...If we apply this pedagogy to teach writing in CE classes, the advantages of the genre pedagogy are not obvious enough. (Patty, Int.2T)

Teachers' views in the above three quotes indicated that due to the contextual factors involved, very limited time was assigned to teaching CE writing, and teachers were forced to train students in test-taking strategies to achieve high marks in CET. Teachers' knowledge of their educational context had a powerful effect on what they teach and how they teach writing. It was not practical

to apply the SFL genre pedagogy to teach students for the goal of developing their real writing ability, even though it was commonly accepted by the teachers as an effective pedagogy.

Thirdly, in contrast to the changes found in most teachers' applications, Amy and Patty seemed to lack interest in applying T-S interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies. Despite the goal of the post-workshop lesson, which was to increase the amount of the interaction activities in various forms (see Appendix 3 for instructional plan), the increase of interactions did not occur to the same degree as was expected in the original instructional design. Instead, the illustration of comparison results between pre- and post-workshop teaching (see Table 5.1 & Table 5.2) showed that the change in T-S interaction application was minimal in Amy's post-workshop teaching (5 versus 6). In Patty's classroom, T-S interactions were even reduced from six to two. Similarly, the adoption of interactional scaffolding strategies of these two cases either remained the same (21 versus 21 in Amy's class) or was largely decreased (27 versus 17 times in Patty's class). All these observational findings were inconsistent with the positive comments Amy and Patty expressed in Interview 2, that students benefited from interactions as they could enhance their knowledge about the topic (see discussion earlier in Section 5.3.3.4).

Teacher participants' application of T-S interactions may reflect their self-perception about the activity. Most of the teachers who chose to interact with many more individual students in their post-workshop teaching, seemed to have taken up the concept that T-S interaction is the most frequently used interaction form in which teachers often guide students by asking questions (Mercer, 1995). In the cases of Amy's and Patty's respective classes, the reduction in use of T-S interaction in post-workshop teaching was possibly related to their self-confidence in interactions, and their knowledge of interactional scaffoldings in particular, as discussed below in more detail.

With reference to offering students sufficient help during the interactions, this appeared to be challenging for some teachers. Amy's conversation with her students in Excerpt 4 below illustrates the difficulties she had encountered when assisting her students.

**Excerpt 4** [Q1, Ex.3] (The dialogue Amy had with three students in her class)

- 1 I Amy: What is the issue? How to state the issue? S4, how does the writer state the issue?
- R S4: ...
- 2 I Amy: Yes, you may pick up some sentences [from the article].
- R S4: “There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping”. To give examples of advantages and disadvantages.
- 3 FI Amy: To list the ‘advantages’ and ‘disadvantages’ is to answer this question. What issue are you going to talk about...in general, what kind of question is it about? [in L1]
- R S4 It’s about the advantages and disadvantages of internet. [in L1]
- 4 FI Amy: The advantages and disadvantages of shopping online. We just talked about ‘Discussion Genre’. What should we do in the first part? [in L1]
- R S4: General statement... [in L1]
- 5 I Amy: What to state generally? [in L1]
- R S4: For example to present the topic by starting ‘with the development of internet’... [in L1]
- 6 FI Amy: To present the topic? You mean to present the topic in the first part? [in L1]
- R S4: To present the topic in the first part. [in L1]
- 7 I Amy: How to present? Actually this question asks you: “How does the writer state the issue?” Could you pick up some sentences? [in L1]
- R S4: The first sentence... the first paragraph.
- 8 I Amy: The whole paragraph, the whole?
- R S4: Yes.
- 9 I Amy: Any different ideas? He thinks the whole first paragraph was used to present the topic...To be more specific, you think which sentence... S5, Can you locate a specific sentence? [in L1]
- R S5: Haven’t found it yet.
- 10 I Amy: Haven’t found out? Who has found it? ... S6 please?
- R S6: ...
- 11 I Amy: What are the uses of the sentences in the first paragraph? ...

In Excerpt 4, Amy aimed to elicit the answer for the question “How does the writer state the issue” in Ex.3 based on the students’ group discussion. In Exchange 2, when no response was drawn from S4, Amy provided a clue explicitly by saying “you may pick up some sentences [from the article]”. Yet, S4 misunderstood the question. Then, Amy tried to pull S4 back by giving feedback on S4’s response and recasting the question (“To list the ‘advantages’ and ‘disadvantages’ is to answer this question. What issue are you going to talk about?”). In the next three exchanges, Amy used different questions to guide S4 toward the answer she was expecting. Unfortunately, S4 did

not understand the meaning of the question. In Exchange 7, Amy repeated the original question and asked S4 to “pick up some sentences” – which actually repeated the first two exchanges. However, S4 still failed to provide the proper answer. Finally, Amy sought the answer from S5 and S6 and tried to assist them to obtain the right answer, but was also unsuccessful.

The failure to elicit the expected response from students demonstrated Amy’s difficulties in giving students immediate support. Mercer (1995) suggests that teachers use classroom talk to elicit knowledge from students. Furthermore, when no correct answer is provided by the first student, a teacher will typically ask another one(s) to tell the answer to the class. The teacher may try to provide “strong visual clues and verbal hints to what is required” so as to draw the expected answer from students and therefore, to avoid “great pains” in telling the answer (Mercer, 1995, p.26). In Excerpt 4, Amy tried to guide her students after she asked them a question to check their group discussion result. Yet, her strong verbal clue to S4 in Exchange 7 (“Could you pick up some sentences?”) actually was the repetition of Exchange 2 (“... you may pick up some sentences.”). In other words, after six exchanges, Amy went back to her original unsuccessful guidance. Between Exchange 2 and 7, Amy used different questions to guide S4’s knowledge construction, but failed. Amy’s unsuccessful scaffolding to her students in Excerpt 4 might indicate her inexperience in undertaking scaffolding strategies and the need to receive more sufficient training in the genre pedagogy with adequate time.

To summarize, TC about interactions drawn from interview results indicated that all teacher participants valued the benefits of interactions and related interactional scaffolding strategies in ZPD in their statements. Nevertheless, what they actually did in teaching practice was not always consistent with their stated beliefs. Observational findings revealed not only changes in applying interactions and related scaffolding strategies to a greater degree in most teachers’ post-workshop teaching, but also some challenges the teachers faced with providing on-the-spot support for students during the interaction period when additional scaffolding was needed.



Borg (2003) explains that teachers' departures from lesson plans result from "the constant interaction between teachers' pedagogical choice and their perceptions of the instructional context, particularly of the students, at any particular time" (p.94). In this sense, to contrast with teachers' overall positive statements about the interaction activities, teachers' removal of many of those interactions from the initial instructional design was probably due to perceived obstacles related to various contextual factors.

Regardless of the classroom teaching situation described above, language serves as the mediation of both teaching and learning. Therefore, the last part of this discussion on the Joint Construction stage will focus on the findings related to TC about the instructional language use in the post-workshop teaching practice. Nevertheless, discussion on this issue is not limited to the Joint Construction stage, but covers the whole of teaching practice in general. This is because classroom second language learning largely relies on the construction of classroom discourse (Gibbons, 2002).

#### ***5.3.3.5 Beliefs in interactions and instructional language use***

Nespor (1987) and Pajares (1992) argue that what teachers do and how teachers change their teaching practice are driven by TC. Similarly, other researchers (Borg, 2003; Breen et al., 2001; Shulman, 1987) assert that teachers' classroom practice is shaped by TC. Accordingly, the choices that the teacher participants made in regards to their use of instructional language reflected their pedagogical knowledge. These beliefs, however, were not explicitly expressed by the teachers during the interviews, but rather were demonstrated in their classroom practice (see also in Section 5.2.3.5).

The theme of teachers' instructional language use emerged after the results of the two observations were compared. Applying the tool of 'word count' in Windows, the use of all transcribed L1 and L2 words in classroom discourses of two classes were calculated, and the results are compared and illustrated in Table 5.3. Aiming to investigate teacher participants'

cognition about the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' writing communicative competence, classroom observations were examined as a major source of data through the lens of teachers' cognition about instructional language. To use the target language for L2 teaching and learning is proposed in both the genre pedagogy (Paltridge, 2001) and CLT (Hymes, 1972; Widdowson, 1978). This concept suggests that teachers' instructional language choice has a definite impact on students' L2 language learning. This impact seemed to be evident when the results of teachers' instructional language use were compared with students' language choice in their classroom discourses, and is discussed at the end of this section.

A comparison of results revealed a significant increase in the adoption of L2 as the language of instruction. However, changes in each teacher's use of L2 appeared to coincide with the performance in their initial teaching. Aside from Kate, who maintained her L2 dominance of instruction in both pre- and post-workshop teaching practices, all teachers used considerably more L2 in their post-workshop teaching. This change probably resulted from the workshop training, since using L2 for instruction was emphasized in the training in the genre approach. As illustrated in Table 5.3, the transcription results of teachers' classroom discourse showed that all teachers tended to employ more L2 in their post-workshop teaching practice, though the degree and extent of changes varied between teachers. However, all teachers' instructional language use in their post-workshop teaching coincided with that which manifested in their initial teaching. For those initially L1-dominated teachers' classes, their language use for post-workshop instruction employed more L2. Using Mike as an example, the use of L2 in his post-workshop class increased sharply from approximately 3% (pre-) to 80% (post-). Yet, L1 explanation was still utilized from time to time. Amy and Jane seemed to be in similar situations, though the increase of L2 use in their classes was not as significant as it was in Mike's class. For Cathy and Patty, who originally used L2 over 50%, their instructions in the post-workshop teaching became nearly L2-dominated (Cathy: 95.69% & Patty: 97.57%). As the only teacher whose initial teaching was mainly L2 based, Kate maintained her L2 instruction in her post-workshop teaching.

Table 5.3

### *L2 Use in Observed Classes*

Class \ Results \ Ts	Amy	Cathy	Jane	Kate	Mike	Patty
pre-workshop teaching	23.23%	52.58%	17.47%	95.70%	8.3%	67.75%
post-workshop teaching	47.48%	95.69%	45.28%	96.32%	79.97%	97.57%

*Note:* Calculation was based on the whole transcription derived from the audio-records of observations. However, applied English model texts were excluded from calculation.

The findings of teachers' instructional language use highlighted the strong impact of teachers' beliefs regarding the application of a pedagogical change. Teaching practice is shaped by TC (Borg, 2003; Shulman, 1987). The teacher participants' choice of instructional language use, therefore, may indicate their cognition about language learning and teaching. The change of teachers' instructional language use might reflect the influence of the training on TC, because L2 instruction is recommended in the training of the SFL genre pedagogy. However, this conclusion is tentative as more evidence is needed to validate this finding. On the other hand, the similarities in the trends in teachers' instructional language use across the two observed classes demonstrated the strong impact of teachers' pre-existing teaching beliefs when applying any educational change. This evidence supported the findings of the previous research (Breen et al., 2001; Levitt, 2001) that any innovation in classroom practice has to be compatible with teachers' own beliefs in teaching principles. To promote the L2 instruction is not an exception.

Additionally, teachers' language employment seemed to have greatly influenced their students' language choice in classroom discourse when responding to teachers' questions. For example, frequent use of L1 to give explanations was a typical characteristic of Amy's instruction. It was evident that her students relied on L1 when engaging in conversations with her. Excerpt 4 provided evidence of such influence. In contrast, the medium of Kate's instruction was conducted mainly in L2, although of all the teachers' classes, her students had relatively low English proficiency. It is evident that her students' language use in classroom interactions was also mostly in L2. This finding probably indicated that in CE class, it was achievable and feasible to teach and learn English through English. The observational findings in the cases above might have revealed

the strong influence a teacher's instructional language choice has on their students' L2 language use in classroom discourses. To encourage students' L2 language use for the purpose of developing students' communicative competence, as the mandate of the current CECR, teachers' beliefs in the benefits of L2 instruction, along with consistent teaching practice, seemed to be essential. A clear change in TC about the L2 instructional language use suggested the possibility of increasing L2 use in future classroom practices.

#### **5.3.4 TC about the Independent Construction stage and teaching practice**

In the Independent Construction stage, students complete a writing task on their own. Building on the last two stages of Deconstruction and Joint Construction, students are supposed to have built up the field knowledge of the target genre and the knowledge of its social purpose. They should have also developed their awareness of the textual features. Through collaborative writing, students are expected to become more confident when writing on a text of the same genre individually in the Independent Construction stage. Nevertheless, students may need to do further research on the new topic of the target genre in this stage, either independently or in small groups, and they need to edit their work individually or collaboratively (Derewianka & Jones, 2012).

Based on this understanding of the Independent Construction stage, the interviews probed teachers' confidence in their students' ability to write independently. Mike's comments below, for example, indicated his confidence about how his students were enabled to conduct their own writing on the basis of those two stages:

Students in the genre pedagogy are guided in a process of analysis themselves instead of being told directly about what the result of the article should be like...Guiding students gradually in this way can make them have deep impressions. When they encounter topics of the same field, they themselves can write on their own confidently...Before, they had to consider the content and textual features within 30 minutes, but now, they only need to spend time on the specific points. They needn't consider the structure issues as they've

been familiarized. If they've already internalized it, they needn't consider the structure any more. (Mike, Int.2T)

In the above quote, Mike highly valued the Deconstruction and Joint Construction stages in developing students' knowledge of the target genre. Accordingly, Mike was confident that students would eventually become familiar with the content and contextual features of the target genre, and be able to complete their writing individually, even within a limited time. Other teachers' statements echoed Mike's view, indicating their strong beliefs in their students' abilities to write on another topic independently.

Teacher participants' confidence in their students' independent writing abilities was consistently reflected in their teaching practice. The classroom observations revealed that all teachers chose to ask their students to write on their own in the Independent Construction stage. No particular interaction activity was observed to offer students further support here. Students were arranged to complete and then submit Text 2 individually. This suggests the teachers believed that either further research on the topic, or modification to their writing, could be undertaken by students themselves, and group work was unnecessary, even though they both were recommended by Derewianka and Jones (2012). On the other hand, although the teachers walked around the class during the process, no students asked for assistance. It may be interrelated to the long history of Chinese Confucius culture. Chinese students believe the philosophy of 'self-effacement' (Chan, 1999) and 'face maintenance' (G. Gao, 1998; Kennedy, 2002; Kirkbride & Tang, 1992) in Confucian culture. They are not used to actively asking questions or seeking help. The students in the current study are unlikely to be exceptions. Yet this may also have demonstrated that students were truly confident enough to complete their writing on their own, which is supported by the teachers' stated beliefs in their students' writing ability.

### 5.3.5 Summary

On the whole, the interview data indicated that the teacher participants in the present study believed that the instructional model of the teaching-learning cycle in the SFL genre pedagogy and the instructional plans were effective in supporting their students' writing development. Students generally improved their understanding of the textual features and were eventually able to write on their own. The teachers especially appreciated the benefits of developing students' knowledge of the topic that students had gained from sets of interaction activities. All these findings demonstrated the positive impact of the professional training in the genre pedagogy that the teachers had received.

However, the observational findings of teachers' actual teaching practices indicated a weak connection with teachers' stated beliefs. Although significant improvements in reference to the application of T-S interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies were found in most teachers' writing instruction trying the genre pedagogy, S-S interaction activities in the original instructional designs were largely removed or simplified.

Variations between the teachers were revealed, which appeared to be closely related to their pre-existing beliefs regarding teaching principles, as well as to their cognition about the application of pedagogical change. The powerful impact of TC on teaching practice was particularly evident in terms of the modelling purposes, interactions, associated interactional scaffolding, and instruction language use.

The greatest barriers identified in instructional practice with the genre pedagogy can be associated with teachers' curriculum knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of students, and knowledge of educational contexts. According to the teachers' knowledge of the realities of the test-driven educational context and the limited time allotted to teaching writing, it seemed impractical for them to apply the genre pedagogy for the goal of developing students' real writing ability, even though it was commonly accepted as an effective pedagogy in teachers' pedagogical knowledge.

## 5.4 Changes in Students' Learning Outcomes

Based on the discussion of findings with regard to teacher participants' cognition about their initial writing pedagogy and the genre pedagogy in the last two sections, this section analyses the students' writing samples to determine whether the genre pedagogy had a positive impact on students' learning of writing. Ultimately, the comparison of results serves to partially answer the final research sub-question:

*What is the relationship between students' writing outcomes and their teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy?*

The comparison with teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy will be conducted later on in Chapter 6 to draw out any possible connections between them.

Evidence was based on the changes (if any) that emerged in the students' writing products after they had received the intervention of the genre pedagogy. Comparisons were carried out between students' two writing samples of Discussion Genre, which were completed in their CE classes before (Text 1) and after (Text 2) the intervention involving the genre instruction. Consistent with the deconstructing foci in the intervention design (see Chapter 4), the key analytical criteria were adapted from the work of Callaghan and Knapp (1989) in terms of the core textual features of the Discussion Genre. Callaghan and Knapp's model was chosen because it provides a systematic description of the key textual features of Discussion Genre texts and is supported in other more recent research (e.g. Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2005b). Moreover, the design of the Deconstruction stage in teaching practice was also in accordance with the work of Callaghan and Knapp, as the modelling text used in their work was similar to the writing task expected in CET. Nevertheless, in relation to the language features, the simple present tense was excluded from the analysis, although it was a focus in the teaching content of the intervention design. This adjustment was made because students did not encounter any problems with that particular verb tense prior to the writing of either text. The term 'phase' was integrated

with the discussion of schematic features, because the teachers stressed that their students were weak in moving argument sequences forward with adequate evidence (see Section 5.2.4) and valued the genre pedagogy in helping them with this weakness (see Section 5.3.3). Additionally, due to the class time limits, the components such as grammar and expression at the sentence level were not focused upon, and thus any grammatical accuracy was excluded from the analysis. Table 5.4 provides an overview of the analytical criteria which was specifically focused on the textual features. A more detailed discussion was provided in Section 3.2.1.3.

Table 5.4

*The Criteria for Analysing Students' Writing Samples*

Textual components			Description
Schematic structure	Issue	Issue statement	Is it included?
		Preview	How appropriately is it presented?
	Argument for	Points	Is it included? How many are included?
		Elaboration	
	Argument against	Points	How appropriately is the meaning presented?
		Elaboration	
	Recommendation	Summary	Is it included?
		Conclusion	How appropriately is it presented?
Language features	Conjunction		How many are included? How appropriately are they used?

*Note:* Based on Callaghan and Knapp (1989)

The analysis focused on 18 texts from nine students with different levels of English proficiency (low-L, medium-M, and high-H) and from three teachers' (Cathy's, Kate's and Mike's) classes. In coding the data, the initials of the teachers' names, students' language level, and students' numbers in their own classes, constituted the students' pseudonyms. For example, the fourth student from Cathy's (C) class with high English proficiency (H) was named as CH4. CH4's two writing samples were then referred to as CH4-1 and CH4-2. All samples of students' original texts and corresponding analysis are attached as appendices (see Appendices 13, 14, and 15 to 21). Table 5.5 below provides a summary of the results of the analysis. The circles indicate obvious improvements in, while the squares indicate reductions in, adopting the analysed features.

Table 5.5



### Summary of Changes Revealed from Students' Text 2 Compared with Text 1

Textual components (Text 1 vs Text 2)			CH4	CM5	CL6	KM1	KH2	KL4	MH4	MM5	ML6
<b>Structure</b>	Issue statement	Inclusive	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Preview	Inclusive	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Points for	Quantity	3 2	3 3	4 3	2 3	2 2	1 2	1 2	1 2	2 3
	Elaboration	Quantity	1 1	2 1	1 1	1 1	1 1	1 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
	Points against	Quantity	1 2	2 2	0 2	1 2	2 2	2 2	1 2	1 2	1 2
	Elaboration	Quantity	1 1	2 1	1 1	2 1	1 1	1 1	1 2	1 2	1 2
	Summary	Inclusive	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
	Conclusion	Inclusive	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√
<b>Language</b>	Conjunction (Conj.)	frequency	6 14	7 10	8 13	11 9	5 6	7 6	7 11	5 13	6 10
		Conj. used	6 8	6 8	8 7	6 5	5 5	6 3	3 8	5 8	5 6

This section consists of four sub-sections. The first three sub-sections introduce the findings as related to *schematic structure*, *phases* and *language features* from the selected students' writing samples. The final sub-section summarizes and discusses the findings.

#### 5.4.1 Enhanced schematic structure to achieve social purpose

As discussed in Chapter 3, the Discussion Genre achieves its social purpose and distinguishes itself from other genres mainly through a sequence of stages that make up its schematic structure (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989). Compared with Text 1, all students showed considerable improvement in developing a schematic structure appropriate for a text in the Discussion Genre. Changes in students' capacity to control the schematic structure are evident in most students' Text 2 including all stages, namely *issue*, *argument for* and *against*, and *recommendation*.

It seemed that prior to the intervention of the SFL genre pedagogy, students had not received explicit instruction on the schematic structure expected of the Discussion Genre. Analysis of students' Text 1 indicated that, on the one hand, most students understood the key stages of the schematic structure including *argument for*, *argument against* and *conclusion*. Except for CL6, who only argued from the positive side of the issue, all other students' Text 1 included the three structural features above. On the other hand, most students seemed unaware of the role of *issue*, which is considered as another essential component of a Discussion Genre text (Callaghan &

Knapp, 1989; Derewianka, 1990). In recent research on primary and secondary school learners' metalinguistic development, H. Chen and Jones (2012) found that "providing explicit knowledge about language for all students is vital" to achieve successful literacy learning. Their research findings support the argument from a previous study (Christie & Unsworth, 2006) in which explicit knowledge provision is advocated as an important means to enhance students' learning development. Explicit instruction of the genre knowledge is also emphasized as a fundamental theory in the SFL genre pedagogy (Martin & Rose, 2007). Participating in the intervention of the genre pedagogy, therefore, could offer the Chinese learners in the present study opportunities to receive explicit content knowledge about the Discussion Genre.

The inclusion of an issue statement (and preview) is a significant change that emerged from the analysis of students' Text 2. In the *issue* stage, students introduce background information related to the topic issue (Derewianka, 1990). As outlined in Table 5.5, seven student participants covered both *statement* and *preview* of the issue in their Text 2, rather than only one of the two phases, as was the case with their Text 1. By including both *statement* and *preview*, the students successfully stated the thesis and previewed the argument for the topic issue that was to be discussed. A comparison between MM5's presentation of the issue in the two texts provided a good example as illustrated in Table 5.6 below. In MM5-1, MM5 introduced the issue that *Recently there is a heated argue [argument] about whether [a] Spoken English Test is necessary or not* (MM5-1: Sentence 2, hereafter 2 for short). Nevertheless, what is missing is a subsequent sentence of preview to introduce the perspective that would be argued in the text. The *preview* of the issue at the opening of a text predicts its overall development (Coffin, 1997). This weakness seemed to be improved upon in MM5-2. MM5 not only stated the issue (see MM5-2: 1), but also previewed that *Recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful* (MM5-2: 2). The involvement of this preview phase clearly orients the readers to the next part on the benefits and harms of recreational activities.

Table 5.6

*Comparison of Results between MM-1 and MM5-2*

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 As English is the most important language in the world, more <b>and</b> more people become to learn English.</p> <p>2 Recently there is a heated argue about whether Spoken English Test is necessary <b>or</b> not.</p> <p>3 Many people argue that Spoken English Test is necessary.</p> <p>4 The reason is Spoken English <b>not only</b> encourages us to learn English, <b>but also</b> let us know our English level.</p> <p>5 <b>However</b>, there are some opposite ideas.</p> <p>6 They argue that Spoken English Test will let us have a pressure which make us hate to learn English.</p> <p>7 In my opinion, Spoken English Test is necessary.</p> <p>8 It is useful to improve our English level.</p> <p>9 The most important thing is that Spoken English Test can stimulate our interest of learning English.</p> <p>10 <b>Therefore</b>, Spoken English Test is necessary today.</p>	<p>Statement of issue → 1</p> <p>ISSUE Preview → 2</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT FOR → 3</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT AGAINST → 5</p> <p>RECOMMENDATION → 7</p> <p>Conclusion → 8</p>	<p>1 With the development of people's living standard, nowadays people have more <b>and</b> more recreational activities to enjoy themselves <b>such as</b> singing, dancing, playing games and so on.</p> <p>2 <b>However</b>, Recreational activities may bring people benefits <b>and</b> they <b>also</b> may be harmful.</p> <p>3 Recreational activities may make people happy <b>and</b> relax their body.</p> <p>4 <b>Moreover</b>, recreational activities will help to develop our economic.</p> <p>5 <b>However</b>, recreational activitei will waste too much time <b>and</b> people won't want to work <b>and</b> study.</p> <p>6 <b>What's more</b>, recreational activities will make people sleep little, which is harmful to their body.</p> <p>7 I suggest that recreational activities are necessary.</p> <p>8 <b>But</b> people should not spend too much time on it, <b>or</b> it will make an bad infullance on them.</p>

Improvement is also evident in the other two students' (KL4 & CL6) *issue* stages, even though the *issue* was not previewed successfully. For example, KL4 wrote in Text 2 (see Appendix 19): *Today, there are various recreational activities. In activities, we can make many friends and communicate with many different people* (KL4-2: 1 & 2). After stating the issue in the first sentence, KL4 attempted to preview the issue in Sentence 2 but was unsuccessful, as only one side of the arguments was presented. The same problem could be discerned in CL6-2 as illustrated in

Table 5.7 (see CL6-2: 2). Yet, overall, compared with introducing argument points without discussing any background information in Text 1, KL4 and CL6 achieved at least partial improvement in developing a preview phase to the issue in Text 2.

Moreover, the changes in the argument stage of Text 2 suggest that students achieved a better understanding of the importance of providing evidence from different sides of the topic, in order to persuade readers to accept their points of view when constructing Discussion Genre texts. Most students in the present study increased the number of points for both sides of the argument topic in Text 2 more than they did in Text 1 (see Table 5.5). For instance, MM5 presented the point of *argument for* the thesis of holding Spoken English Tests in Text 1 that *Spoken English not only encourages us to learn English, but also let us know our English level* (WW5-1: 4). The only point of *argument against* the thesis discussed is related to the pressure that speaking tests may bring upon students: ... *which make us hate to learn English* (MM5-1: 6).

Changes were made to the argument stage in MM5-2 to argue in favour of recreational activities. Two points are displayed: *help people happy and relax their body* and *help to develop our economic* (MM5-2: 3 & 4). In contrast, recreational activities have the disadvantages of *waste too much time and people won't want to work and study*, and *make people sleep little, which is harmful to their body* (MM5-2: 5 & 6). Overall, more evidence is presented for both sides of the argument in MM5-2, thus making the argument more persuasive when finally concluding that *recreational activities are necessary* though people should avoid becoming addicted to recreational activities.

The changes in CL6's writing products in terms of the schematic structure are the most significant of all the students' changes. As shown in Table 5.7, in the *issue* stage, the background of the issue that *A Test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the college English Test* is introduced in CL6-1. Nevertheless, the *preview* phase is missing, which is problematic since this stage typically serves to guide readers to the arguments to be presented in the follow-up

stage. Improvement in producing the issue stage is evident in CL6-2 as discussed earlier in this section.

Table 5.7

*Comparison of Results between CL6-1 and CL6-2*

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 A Test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the college English Test.</p> <p>2 Many people think that it's necessary to have a test of spoken English because most of Chinese students can't speak English fluently although we can get high score in English examination nowadays.</p> <p>3 But there's also some different opinions.</p> <p>4 As far as I am concerned, a test of spoken English is necessary.</p> <p>5 First, no passion, no improvement.</p> <p>6 Having spoken English test can stimulate us to study English harder and get more improvement.</p> <p>7 Second, we study English for many years in order to have better communication with foreigners.</p> <p>8 How can we reach this goal if we are bad in spoken English.</p> <p>9 Third, spoken English is an ability of getting more knowledge.</p> <p>10 So, I will do my best to improve my spoken English and do more practice with classmates in daily life.</p> <p>11 It's necessary for us to pay more attention to spoken English and having a test of it as the development of our country.</p>	<p>Statement of issue <b>ISSUE</b> Preview</p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT FOR</b> Elaboration</p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT AGAINST</b></p> <p><b>RECOMMENDATION</b> Conclusion</p>	<p>1 With the development of our economy, recreational activities become more and more important in our daily life.</p> <p>2 There are various recreational activities such as "DIY" activities, computer games, dancing et cetera.</p> <p>3 Recreational activities may bring us lot lot of benefits.</p> <p>4 First of all, they may promote our creative ability when we try to make it more interesting and seek ways to the higher state.</p> <p>5 What's more, when we're absorbed in the activities we may ease ourselves from pressure and learn how to cooperate with other people.</p> <p>6 However, when we turn the effects that the activities take over, we can also find a serious of problems.</p> <p>7 On the one hand, many people often get lost in recreational activities and forget their responsibility of their family and work.</p> <p>8 On the other hand, the activities may cost us a lot of money.</p> <p>9 As far as I am concerned, everything has two sides and we can't throw the rose because of its thick.</p> <p>10 What we can do is just to control ourselves and find the balance between recreational activities and our study.</p> <p>11 Then we can get higher achievement in the boring study with a lot of fun.</p>

The improvement in the argument stage of CL6-2 is even more significant. The argument in CL6-1 focused on one side of the issue, as presented in two paragraphs. In paragraph one, CL6 stated the first argument outlining that the necessity of holding the spoken test was due to the problem that *most of Chinese students can't speak English fluently although we can get high score in English examination nowadays*. Then in the topic sentence of paragraph two, CL6 asserted: *But there's [there're] also some different opinions*.

Callaghan and Knapp (1989) argue that the topic sentence should express the central idea of the paragraph. The use of different opinions or the additional conjunction *but*, would typically lead readers to expect an alternative perspective to be presented, outlining why it is not necessary to have a spoken English test; yet this does not occur. Instead, the next sentence provided a completely opposite message: *As far as I am concerned, a test of spoken English is necessary* (CL6-1: 4), which was followed by the presentation of three more points supporting the issue. Consequently, when drawing the conclusion, CL6 only supplied evidence for one side of the argument in CL6-1, whereas the argument in CL6-2 covered both sides of the issue with relevant evidence.

Positive changes could also be found in the *recommendation* stage from CL6-2. In the conclusion phase of CL6-1, CL6 expressed the desire to improve spoken English (CL6-1: 10) and stressed the necessity of *pay[ing] more attention to a spoken English and having a test of it* (CL6-1: 11). However, when concluding this viewpoint in support of having a spoken test, this part of the final sentence also provided a reason for this view (*as the development of our country*). As this point had never been raised previously in the text, this added new reason seemed to be irrelevant, particularly as a concluding statement. This is different from the case of CL6-2. The development of phases appeared more logical in the conclusion stage of CL6-2. Sentence 9 summarizes that *everything has two sides*. Then it is concluded later that we should *control ourselves and find the balance between recreational activities and our study* so that *we can get higher achievement in the boring study with a lot of fun* (CL6: 10 & 11). Thus, compared with CL6-1, the

*recommendation* stage of CL6-2 achieved more logic, including both a summary and a conclusion for the thesis of the text.

#### **5.4.2 Enhanced phases to move sequences forward in stages**

According to Martin and Rose (2005b), phases refer to the way that a genre shares a set of resources to move sequences forward for communicative purposes. On the one hand, phases comprise one or more messages; on the other hand, one or more messages make up a generic stage. In other words, message(s) work together to constitute phase(s) and phase(s) compose stages. How many messages are presented in each phase, and how those messages are linked to each other, directly impact the success of constructing phase(s) and then a generic stage. For example, the presentation of argument points (messages) for each argument side (phase) composes the argument stage. Whether sufficient information is included in those messages in each phase, and whether the presentation of those messages has achieved a logical flow, will have a strong influence in deciding the outcomes of phases and therefore, the argument stage.

Students generally achieved enhanced phases to transition forward into different stages in their Text 2. The way that MM5 arranged the phases of the *issue* stage in Text 2 provides an example of such improvement. In contrast to moving to the argument stage immediately after stating the issue in Text 1, the issue stage of MM5's Text 2 included the phase of issue preview. MM5 first introduced the background information of the issue (*...nowadays people have more and more recreational activities to enjoy themselves...*). It is followed by previewing the issue from two opposite sides, stating that *recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful* (MM5-2: 2). By doing so, readers are guided to an expectation for argument from two sides of the issue in the follow-up phases, which is the purpose of the next stage of argument.

The enhancement of phases is particularly evident in the argument stage of students' Text 2. Applying more messages to argue for both sides of the issue in two phases is evident in all students' Text 2, except for CM5 and KH2, whose quantity of argument points remained

unchanged from what it was in their Text 1. This change is relevant to the purpose of this stage in presenting arguments with adequate evidence. As illustrated in Table 5.5, in Text 1, many students only employed one point to argue one side of the issue (e.g. CH4, KM1, KL4, MH4, MM5 & ML6). In contrast, both sides of the argument were more equally covered in two phases in Text 2. Considering the fact that students were provided with more interaction opportunities during the intervention, this finding may demonstrate Mercer's (1995) position that learning occurs through students' engagement in classroom interactions. In addition, since the main purpose of the Discussion Genre is to persuade someone to accept the viewpoint of an issue, adding more argument points to both sides is a way to supply more evidence and help to strengthen the persuasiveness of the final conclusion.

Of all the students, CL6's writing products are worth noting for the remarkable changes revealed in Text 2 with regard to the messages being delivered in phases and the constitution of the argument stage. As discussed previously with CL6-1, the argument of the issue focused solely on the *argument for* with four points, while nothing was mentioned for the opposite perspective of the issue. Because constructing a Discussion Genre text is to argue for two or more sides and draw a conclusion based on the evidence presented (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989; Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Martin & Rose, 2005b), the manner in which the stages unfold is "in highly predictable sequences" (Martin & Rose, 2005b, p. 82). Missing either argument side (e.g. CL6-1) mismatches the social purpose of constructing Discussion Genre texts. To contrast with focusing on one side of the argument in CL6-1, it is evident in CL6-2 that CL6 developed the content knowledge about the Discussion Genre and included the phases of two argument sides with clear statements indicating contrast. For the phase of arguing for recreational activities, CL6 produced three messages: *promote our creative ability*; *ease ourselves from pressure*; and *help us to learn how to co-operate with others*. Meanwhile, two opposite points were presented in the phase of arguing against: *Many people often get lost in recreational activities* and *the activities may cost us a lot of money*.



Furthermore, in both phases of the argument stage, CL6 connected reasons in a logical flow to illustrate both the benefits and the harms of recreational activities. For example, *what's more* was used to link the first benefit to the others, whereas another additional conjunction, *and*, was employed to link the other two benefits. When moving forward to discuss the harms of recreational activities, *however* indicated the information in the follow-up phase was in contrast. As a consequence, messages for both sides of the issue were presented in sequence within two phases and constituted the argument stage of CL6-2.

By comparison, for the two students (CM5 & KH2) whose phases of argument stage appeared relatively unchanged, analysis of their Text 1 seemed to suggest that they probably understood the necessity of arguing for both sides of the issue before the intervention. In both texts, they consistently discussed two or three argument points for each side of the issue in two phases. This consistency may reflect these two students' beliefs in the importance of including phases covering both argument sides with sufficient evidence when producing arguments in the Discussion Genre.

In addition to presenting more argument points conveying meaningful messages in Text 2, some students were also found to have added information by elaborating on the argument points. Compared with six elaboration phases revealed in Text 1 (see Table 5.5), ten elaborations were applied in four students' (CH4, CM5, KM1 & KH2) Text 2. Lacking elaborations may sometimes cause confusion for the reader. For instance, from the argument for the necessity of holding a test of spoken English, CH4's two points are outlined in the phase of argument for as follows (see Appendix 15):

...4 Secondly, with the development of economy, the number of foreigners who are living in our country is growing up. 5 And we have much business with other countries. 6 Thirdly, taking a test of spoken English can improve students' English.”(CH4-1: 4, 5 & 6)

In Sentences 4 and 5, CH4 talked about the increase in the number of foreigners living in China and the development of international business there. Without linking this view to the topic and

explaining how they are related, the third point, that *taking a test of spoken English can improve students' English*, subsequently followed. Likewise, how a test of spoken English works to improve students' English was taken for granted. The lack of elaboration resulted in unclear explanation of the two messages to the readers.

On the contrary, additional information can be provided through elaboration to further explain the argument point(s) and help to persuade the readers. Of all the students, CM5's changes are the most significant in relation to providing elaboration (see Appendix 16). In contrast to having no phase of elaborations in CM5-1, CM5 tried to elaborate the messages for both sides of the argument in Text 2. It was argued that recreational activities had the benefits of bringing us more *knowledge, friendship and relaxation* (CM5-2: 5, 7 & 9). To explain two of these benefits, CM5 stated *Every activity has its own story and culture* (CM5-2: 6); and *when we take activities we are a big family* (CM5-2: 8). Similarly, CM5 elaborated on the two opposing points of view: *Many children may be addicted* (CM5-11) and therefore they would be changed to *only love activities in their lives* (CM5-2: 12) and because the recreational activities *may be [maybe] cost more money* (CM5-13), people would do anything in order *to make money in short time* (CM5-2: 14). Supported with elaboration, the readers were enabled to achieve better understanding of the argument points in CM5-2. This type of elaboration was common in the texts written by the other students CH4, KM1 and KH2 (see Appendices 15, 17 & 18).

#### **5.4.3 Enhanced conjunction use to achieve text cohesion**

The results of the detailed analyses of students' conjunction use showed that students achieved certain developments in understanding and implementing this key language feature. From the links between clauses, we can sense the logical complexity in a text (Veel, 1997). The use of conjunctions serves to connect all of the clauses together to achieve a logical flow in the text, and this involves connecting clauses with each other in terms of time, cause and condition, comparison, addition, and example and results (Callaghan & Knapp, 1989). Thus, to appropriately use more conjunctions helps to achieve text cohesion.

Many students demonstrated an increased frequency of conjunction use (see Table 5.5: CH4, CM5, CL6, MH4, MM5 & ML6) and enhanced use of more sophisticated and/or more diverse types of conjunctions (e.g. CH4, CM5, MH4 & MM5) from Text 1 to Text 2. The increase in conjunction use indicates improvement in their use, or at least improved awareness of their functions, by students. For example, apart from the increased frequency of conjunction use, MM5 utilized comparative, additional and exemplifying conjunctions, and the changes in the latter two seemed to be more evident (see Table 5.6). In MM5-1, additional conjunctions are used to express alternatives (e.g. *and* & *or* in sentences 1 & 2) and join clauses (e.g. *not only...but also* in Sentence 4). Moreover, the comparative conjunction of *however* is used to start Sentence 5 as a mark of contrast in relations between what was presented, and what was going to be argued about, in phase two of the argument stage. In the end, *therefore* was applied to show the result. In MM5-2, except for employing the same conjunctions *and* and *however*, MM5 used *such as* to exemplify recreational activities like *singing, dancing, playing games and so on* (MM5-2: 1). Furthermore, the use of additional conjunctions included *also, moreover, what's more* and *but*. While *also* helps to connect a clause (MM5-2: 2), the other three all link to alternatives (MM5-2: 4, 6 & 8). For instance, *moreover* elicits the second point for the phase of argument for. Similarly, *what's more* is followed by the second point of argument against. Both additional conjunctions of *moreover* and *what's more* tied two points of the argument, and enhanced the cohesiveness of the argumentation.

Despite the improvement in conjunction use for most students, there is also evidence that some students (e.g. KM1 & KL4) repeatedly employed limited conjunctions in both of their texts (see Appendices 17 & 19). For instance, KL4 employed conjunctions seven times in KL4-1, but the casual-conditional conjunction of *so* was repeatedly used to start a sentence (KL4-1: 6 & 9). It seems that in both of the situations, KL4 intended to draw conclusions based on the reasons already stated, such as in the following case: *I think spoken English is very important for us. So my advice is that a test of spoken English is necessary* (KL4-1: 8 & 9). In this case there are other alternatives (e.g. *therefore*) which may be more suitable than *so* to signal the conclusion of the

whole text. Likewise, in Text 2, KL4 repeatedly used only the two conjunctions of *and* (three times) and *but* (two times). Both instances of *but* were used to connect ideas that contrast. Nevertheless, aiming to advance the arguments from an opposite side at the start of a new paragraph, replacing *but* with *however* in Sentence 6 may indicate the follow-up messages in contrast more explicitly. The findings from the cases of KM1 and KL4 also suggest the need for students to develop their knowledge of conjunctions.

#### **5.4.4 Discussion and summary of the results of the comparisons between students' writing samples**

The comparison between results of the students' two writing samples indicate that the majority of the students made progress in their Text 2 in respect of their control over the *schematic structure*, *phases* and *linguistic features (conjunction)* of the Discussion Genre. Students appeared to have gained a sound understanding of the social function of the Discussion Genre, specifically in terms of convincing others by providing evidence from different sides of an argument. Similarly, there is evidence of enhanced phases comprising of more messages presenting argument points. The students also to some degree improved their understanding of, and paid more attention to, the functions of conjunctions in achieving text cohesion. Additionally, analysis of results demonstrate the extent to which the changes took place were different between students (see Table 5.5).

Despite the fact that there was only one intervention using the genre pedagogy, the study had identified noticeable improvement. The observed results were in agreement with the postulations of the previous literature and studies in this field (Y. Chen & Su, 2012; M. Kim, 2006; Kongpetch, 2006), namely that the genre pedagogy is effective in teaching text structure and linguistic features to students when comparing students' writing performance before and after the training workshops. This may be because the students in those studies, like the Chinese students in the current study, share a lack of knowledge of English genres in their EFL contexts.

Moreover, the minor changes revealed from the KH2-2 sample seem to have highlighted the inseparable relationship between students' learning outcomes, their existing language proficiency and their learning attitude. Of all the selected writing samples, the changes in KH2-2 were the least noticeable. As a student with relatively high language proficiency, apart from adding an issue statement, no clear changes were made in Text 2. This result is possibly related to KH2's existing high-level understanding of the construction of Discussion Genre texts. KH2 already showed superior writing skills in Text 1 and there was comparatively less room for improvement. However, this may also be related to the learner's attitude. Even though KH2 is a student with comparatively high language proficiency, there was still room for improvement in what he produced in writing as shown in KH2-2. As Hammond and Gibbons (2005) proposed, learning is an active process of getting to know something. Hence, it is always necessary for teachers to consider encouraging all students' active involvement in learning activities.

In short, although this study has its limitations, due to the time constraint on the intervention of the genre pedagogy, the improvement that was revealed in student participants' Text 2 showed signs of the genre pedagogy's effectiveness in supporting students' learning to write in CE classes. The genre pedagogy is therefore helpful for students in learning schematic structure and language features. In particular, this pedagogy appears to be significant in enhancing students' understanding of moving sequences forward with more meaningful messages to achieve successful generic stages.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This study investigated how Chinese EFL teachers perceived the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy when it was applied to support their students' learning of writing in CE classes. A qualitative case study was adopted to capture data from both teacher participants' experiences and student participants' learning outcomes. Specifically, the data collection in this study involved two phases, each occurring either before or after the workshops on genre pedagogy: Two interviews with individual teachers; two classroom observations of each teacher's teaching practices; and their student participants' two in-class writing samples produced in the observed classes.

Drawing upon two major theories of TC and the SFL genre pedagogy, multi-stage analytical tools were utilized to analyse the teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy. Borg's (2003) model of TC was employed to illustrate the overarching relationship between the teachers' cognition and related components, namely schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practice. Shulman's (1987) model of teacher knowledge was employed to explore the teachers' knowledge base in more detail, which in turn helped to gain insight into TC about the genre pedagogy. Similarly, two major tools were applied to analyse data related to the genre pedagogy. As the primary principle underlying the SFL genre pedagogy, teachers' capabilities to assist their students through the use of scaffolding strategies, in the form of classroom talk, largely influence the success in instructing with this pedagogy. Thus, the interactional scaffolding strategies in Hammond's and Gibbon's (2005) model were particularly useful in analysing the teachers' classroom talk during observed classes. To explore whether this pedagogical change was

positively reflected in their students' learning outcomes, examining the students' writing samples proved beneficial. The possible changes in the students' writing products were then analysed using a model designed to examine the textual features of the Discussion Genre, which was developed by Callaghan and Knapp (1989) and supported by other researchers (Derewianka & Jones, 2012; Macken-Horarik, 2002).

In light of the above theories, this chapter begins with discussions about changes in Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about writing instruction in relation to the SFL genre pedagogy and actual teaching practices, and the consistency level between them. On this basis, how the changes to teachers are linked to the changes to their students' writing outcomes is suggested. This chapter then reviews the major findings reported in this research study under the guidance of the research sub-questions. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the contributions and implications of the present study.

## **6.2 Teachers' Cognition about SFL genre pedagogy**

Teaching necessarily begins with a teacher's understanding of what and how it is to be taught (Shulman, 1987). It involves how teachers represent their subject matter knowledge into comprehensible forms with appropriate curriculum materials. As such, the strength of teachers' content knowledge about subject matter, curriculum, and pedagogy is the foundation of any successful teaching. As demonstrated in the current study, the success of teaching the Discussion Genre in subsequent writing-oriented lessons largely resulted from changes relating to Chinese EFL teachers' knowledge about the SFL genre pedagogy, the Discussion Genre, and what should be taught to their students.

It is evident that following the workshop training, changes that occurred in the teacher participants' cognition were mainly related to three sub-categories of content knowledge, based on Shulman's (1986) concept of teacher knowledge, namely curricular knowledge, subject matter content knowledge, and pedagogical content knowledge. This finding was in alignment with the overall focus in genre-based training and instructional design (see Section 4.5.2). It is important to note,

however, that researchers (Grossman, 1995; Tsui, 2003) argue that the seven overall categories of Shulman's knowledge base are often interrelated and intermesh constantly in teaching practices, although they are addressed separately in Shulman's work. The findings of the current study demonstrated that the same is true for the changes that happened in Chinese teacher participants' knowledge of teaching writing. The changes in the teachers' three knowledge categories above were often interrelated to each other.

### **6.2.1 Genre pedagogy in teachers' subject matter content knowledge**

The teacher participants developed their understanding about the textual features needed to be covered when constructing Discussion Genre texts, but the importance of social communicative purpose, an integral component of SFL pedagogy, failed to gain significant weight in their subject matter content knowledge. As discussed earlier, subject matter content knowledge refers to the knowledge about what content of subject discipline is to be taught (Shulman, 1986, 1987). Overall, both interview and observational findings suggested that the teacher participants had enhanced their subject matter content knowledge to some extent.

The most substantial improvement in teachers' subject matter content knowledge was with reference to teachers' understanding about the features of text structure that need to be covered when instructing the Discussion Genre. Pre-workshop interview and observational data revealed that all of the teachers valued the importance of instructing the basic text structure of Introduction, Body and Conclusion. Nevertheless, some teachers indicated in post-work interviews that from instruction experience with the genre pedagogy, they realized that their previous foci on schematic structure in instruction was too general, not providing enough details in more specific structural features such as phases of issue, argument, recommendation and so forth. Instead, teaching in the genre pedagogy provided students with step-by-step guidance throughout the writing process. These findings demonstrated positive changes in teachers' subject matter content knowledge of the schematic structure of the Discussion Genre.



Despite improved understanding of the forms of textual features inherent of the Discussion Genre, certain areas of the teachers' content knowledge showed no improvement. In particular, there is no evidence of teachers' uptake of the social purpose of writing as important in their subject content knowledge. As emphasized in the workshop training, a fundamental principle of the genre approach is to produce texts for accomplishing social communicative purposes. It concerns how appropriate choice of language is made for situational context (Martin & Rothery, 1980). Accordingly, when setting a target genre like Discussion in this study, teachers need to provide students with explicit input on social functions of the genre in specific social contexts (Martin & Rose, 2007). Thus, conveying meaningful messages as integral to successful social communication is the main goal of writing that needs to be explicitly highlighted to students. However, similar to teachers' initial writing instructions, the social communicative purpose of text construction was not emphasized as important content knowledge in the post-workshop teaching practice. Rather, the first of all the elements of the modelling stage that teachers highlighted in the post-workshop interviews was imitating the text format.

Teachers' continued concerns about correct language forms and inadequate attention to the social purpose in their writing instruction match You's (2004a) research conclusion that, guided by the CECR and CET, what teachers are most concerned about in their writing instruction is the "correct form" and "test-taking skills" rather than the development of students' real writing ability (You, 2004a, p. 97). Teachers' strong beliefs in imitating model texts to produce texts in correct forms, and with limited consideration for their social purposes, reflected the product approach to a great extent. This result about teachers' main concerns in their subject matter content knowledge echoed the strong argument from other researchers; that the product approach is still important in writing classrooms in China (J. Gao, 2007; Paltridge, 2006; Qian, 2010; Yan, 2010; You, 2004a; Y. Zhang, 2006), despite training in the genre pedagogy. Teachers' limited attention to the social purpose of text construction is contrary to the core principle of the genre pedagogy in advocating the development of students' knowledge of language functions for social communications

(Hammond et al., 1992), and that constructing any text is to fulfil specific social purposes (Derewianka, 2003; Hyland, 2003b; Martin, 2009).

A few conclusions can be derived from the changes that occurred with the teacher participants' subject matter content knowledge. It firstly suggests the powerful impact of teachers' pre-existing knowledge and beliefs in TC about the subject content matter. Although the teachers developed their understanding about the textual features required for producing Discussion Genre texts, they still did not accept the social communicative purposes as important, and thus maintained their focus on the accurate forms of students' final products. Secondly, the maintenance of teachers' concerns about their writing instruction seems to result from the examination criteria set for the CET writing tasks in which grammatical accuracy is highlighted. As discussed earlier, in test-driven teaching and learning situations, improving students' final marks in the CET has been the most important goal of teaching CE writing. This misguided focus on CET marks indicates the urgent need to reform the design of the CET, to assign more time to providing teachers with professional training and to implement the relevant changes. In response to the existing gap between CET design and CECR requirements, improving the design of writing assessment in the CET should be a priority, and is probably the most effective way to influence teachers' pedagogical choices. In this way, it may be possible to alter teachers' beliefs in any educational change obtained from professional training, which would encourage them to put the new change into their teaching practices.

It is argued that teachers' knowledge of the content affects what they teach and how they teach it (Grossman, 1995). In accordance, apart from teaching content, changes in teacher participants' subject matter content knowledge also made it more likely that there would be similar changes in their pedagogical choices in teaching practices. Such choice includes how teachers represent explanations and construct activities for their students (Grossman, 1995). How the teacher participants explained their subject matter content knowledge in the current study is discussed in the section below.

### **6.2.2 Genre pedagogy in teachers' curricular and pedagogical content knowledge**

Of all the categories of teachers' content knowledge, the positive changes in the pedagogical content knowledge are the most significant, which appear to be not only linked to teachers' subject matter content knowledge, but also closely related to teachers' curricular knowledge. While curricular knowledge concerns both teacher's knowledge of the teaching programs and its associated teaching materials, pedagogical content knowledge is related to teachers' understanding about how to represent their subject matter content knowledge into adaptive forms to their students who have variable backgrounds (Shulman, 1986, 1987).

Interview findings indicated that in all teacher participants' pedagogical content knowledge, the genre pedagogy could effectively assist students to develop their understanding of textual features in constructing Discussion Genre texts. The teachers generally believed that the method of modelling could guide students to achieve a sound understanding about textual features of target genre texts. In particular, Jane and Mike suggested using more model texts. This positive change supports Shulman's (1987) concept that except for training, pedagogical content knowledge can best be developed through teaching practices and related reflection. It also supports Tamir's (1991) conclusion that the actual development of teachers' pedagogical content knowledge is inseparable from teacher experiences and follow-up reflection on those experiences. It is through trying the pedagogy in teaching practice that the teacher participants experienced the benefits of the modelling method for explaining the textual features in detail. On this basis, the idea of applying more model texts for modelling was probably generated when the teachers reflected on its benefits and students' learning needs. As a result, the development of teacher participants' cognition about the writing instruction (modelling method) happened, which also demonstrated Borg's (2003) concept that TC and practices mutually impact one another.

Nevertheless, teachers' perceived benefits of modelling tended to correspond with their beliefs prior to the training of the genre pedagogy. In the pre-workshop interviews, most teachers (e.g. Amy, Kate, Mike & Patty) highlighted the function of model texts in improving their students'

awareness of text format, syntax, and grammatical accuracy (see Section 5.2.3.4) rather than focusing on how to explicitly guide students' understanding of using meaningful language to achieve the social purpose of the target genre. In fact, some teachers purposefully avoided exploring the social purpose of the target text. In particular, Patty suggested avoiding the explicit instruction about the social purpose in order to ensure students did not get confused about correct text forms. Consequently, the teachers' pedagogical content knowledge appeared to align with the traditional product approach, which is similar to their subject matter content knowledge as discussed in the previous section.

To provide students with explicit instruction in how to use meaningful language to achieve communicative purposes is a primary principle of the genre pedagogy (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Hyland, 2007; Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2007). As Chen and Jones (2012) argued, providing students with explicit knowledge about language is essential to all students in teaching literacy. Not only the knowledge being taught, but also the expectation of teaching should be explicit (Martin, 1999). As such, students should be explicitly informed about the knowledge of the social purpose of Discussion Genre texts, and how functional language serves to achieve this communicative goal. Apart from the influence of the test-driven educational context, this gap in the teacher participants' understanding of the SFL genre pedagogy emphasizes the necessity of increasing the time devoted to additional training in the pedagogy. In this way, the teachers could fully explore the importance and benefits of establishing an understanding of the genre pedagogy. They also would better understand the importance of explicit instruction on the content knowledge to their students. As a result, the teachers would likely have explicitly emphasized the social communicative purpose of the Discussion Genre in their teaching.

Holding the belief that students would benefit from the strategy of modelling, teachers emphasized the method of teaching writing with the combination of reading (e.g. Jane & Patty) and suggested providing more model texts to deconstruct in class (e.g. Jane & Mike). The teachers' belief in integrating writing with reading is in line with the SFL genre pedagogy, in which text reading is frequently used to build up students' field knowledge of the target genre when teaching

writing (Derewianka & Jones, 2012). This pedagogical belief suggests the occurrence of positive changes in teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, which probably reflect the value of professional training to the development of teachers' curricular and pedagogical content knowledge. In the CLT approach, which is the ultimate goal of the CECR, writing is a component of communicative competence. In the genre pedagogy, text reading serves to develop students' field knowledge of the target genre. It is worth noting that this belief fails to support Liao's (1996) earlier argument that the traditional reading priority in China has its problems in teaching reading in isolation from other language skills. The method of borrowing model texts to teach writing was evident in pre-workshop teaching as discussed in Section 5.2. This method of teaching writing through text reading was highlighted as being even more beneficial by the teachers after the workshop training.

To accomplish this integration between teaching writing and reading, a textbook-based method, which had carefully considered the CET requirements, was advocated (e.g. Jane). This belief appeared consistent with teachers' initial recommendation of using textbooks as a resource for teaching writing before the training although the purposes were different at more specific levels. In pre-workshop teaching, the teachers highly valued the textbook for English major students, from which the teachers themselves learned pedagogical knowledge about teaching writing (e.g. Kate borrowed the methods of teaching Introduction stage from the textbook). Instead, the benefit of the textbook that Jane highlighted after post-workshop training was referred to in the CE textbook. She believed that the texts in her students' CE textbook were extremely useful in developing students' field knowledge when teaching a target genre based on the requirements set for CET writing tasks.

As such, textbooks remained valuable in teacher participants' pedagogical content knowledge after the training in the genre pedagogy, and they were believed by the teachers to provide good guidance for teachers' pedagogical choices, and were a good resource as reading texts for teaching CE writing. Researchers (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Wilson, Shulman, & Richert, 1987) argue that pedagogical content knowledge is the bridge between the subject matter and learners. It is

teachers' interpretation that makes the subject matter content knowledge comprehensible to students. In this sense, though traditional, the textbook-based teaching method can be effective when being used appropriately to support teaching writing. The fact that the teachers valued the textbook so highly indicated the powerful impact of teachers' prior pedagogical knowledge on TC. In the same fashion, the requirements of CET writing tasks have remained as important in teachers' subject matter content knowledge, and they have strongly shaped teachers' curricular and pedagogical content knowledge.

The maintenance of teachers' particular attention to the textbook-based method and CET requirements demonstrates that changes in TC were evident, but some traditional beliefs about teaching and learning writing were unchanged, such as textbook-based instruction. This finding supports F. Zhang and Liu's (2013) recent research findings. While teachers embrace many constructivist ideas underpinning the educational changes, they also retain quite a few traditional beliefs and practices. The teachers in the present study seemed to hold their beliefs in the benefits of the SFL genre pedagogy in conflict with various contextual factors, such as the CET writing requirements, the CE textbook based CECR, their students' needs and so forth. Additionally, the teachers' concern about the CET in teaching writing followed You's (2004a, 2004b) earlier argument with regard to the strong effects of the CET. It is argued that the CET is "a gamble for both the teachers and students", and also "an eminent power generator" for the whole CE curriculum to function (You, 2004a, p. 108). The CET appears to have had a more powerful role than the CECR in guiding the teachers' decisions made for their teaching content and teaching methods. This finding in return highlighted the importance of designing CET writing tasks with the aim of achieving the development of students' real writing competence.

### **6.2.3 Impacts on teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy**

The impacts on the development of teacher participants' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy have been quite diverse in the present study. The teacher participants' final cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy is mainly related to the following four inter-related predominating factors:

Professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy, the teachers' actual trial experience with the pedagogy, prior knowledge of writing instruction, and contextual factors.

#### ***6.2.3.1 Impact of the professional training and teaching experiences in trying the genre pedagogy***

Changes in the teachers' three categories of content knowledge base seemed to have drawn mostly on the two main sources; professional training and trial experiences in teaching practice, although the influence from teachers' pre-existing knowledge and certain contextual factors was also evident. According to Borg (2003), what teachers actually do in classroom teaching and what they express about their knowledge are both valuable in gaining insights into TC. In the current study, there was evidence that the teachers built up their knowledge of genre theories from the workshop training in the SFL genre approach, even despite the relatively short duration of the training. The impact of workshop training supports findings from previous research (e.g. Baker, 2011; Borg, 1998; S. Borg, 2001; Freeman, 1993; Johnson, 1994), indicating the value of teacher education to TC.

Positive changes to the teachers' subject matter content knowledge, as achieved through professional training, appear to have led to improvements in their teaching practices as well. For example, the teachers' instruction covered all structural features in the instructional designs, which were much more detailed than their initial coverage of Introduction, Body and Conclusion. The teachers' stated beliefs in the genre pedagogy in the post-workshop interviews were a reflection of such teaching practice, and were more or less influenced by their trial experiences in teaching practice. This is because teacher practices and cognition mutually interact (Borg, 2003; Breen et al., 2001). Therefore, both professional training and teaching practices contributed to the changes to the teacher participants' knowledge base in the current study.

### ***6.2.3.2 Impact of teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs***

With regard to the impact of professional training, Borg (2003) argues that it is naturally varied across studies, and even in the same study. Teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs about teaching, together with contextual variables in teaching contexts, are frequently pointed out as the major factors leading to such variation. For example, according to Tamir (1991, p. 264), "education is very much culture and context dependent" and teachers conduct interaction activities differently because of their different personal situations, such as their teaching experience. It is proposed that teacher knowledge results from an interaction of particular social contexts, in which the importance of teaching experience in improving teacher knowledge is emphasized (e.g. Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Yinger & Hendrick-Lee, 1993). Similarly, in the present study, while professional training and trial experiences in teaching practice seemed to be the two major factors shaping teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy, the impact of teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs about teaching writing is evident in any changes to teachers' cognition and teaching practices. Specifically, prior knowledge and beliefs about teaching has the most crucial influence on the change in levels of teachers' content knowledge, which is discussed in the following pages of this section.

The most significant evidence of the impact of teachers' pre-existing knowledge is in terms of the changes to teachers' subject matter content knowledge. For example, as discussed earlier, though changes in the teachers' pedagogical content knowledge were evident, it was also clear that the main concerns of their writing instruction were accurate language forms, rather than social communicative purposes in spite of the training in the genre pedagogy. It demonstrated that the teachers had maintained their initial beliefs in the product approach from before the workshop (see Section 5.2). This result addresses the need to conduct professional training with a longer time allowance such as when providing the teachers with the training in the genre pedagogy in the present study. The evidence of changes to the teacher participants' cognition, as well as the maintenance of teachers' pre-existing beliefs regarding writing instruction, suggests that



professional training in pedagogical changes has a clear impact on both TC and teaching practices. However, a complete shift from teachers' firm belief in traditional pedagogy to an unorthodox new pedagogy should not be expected in a short period of time.

Another example of the extent of impact on pre-existing knowledge and beliefs relates to the fact that teachers appear to hold reading skills as a priority above all other language skills in teachers' curricular knowledge. Most of the teachers (e.g. Amy, Cathy, Jane & Mike) valued reading skills more than any other language skills despite the workshop training. Teachers' strong belief in reading as a curriculum priority appeared to be in consistent with the goal setting in the local CE syllabus (see Appendix 9), and reflected the goal of the previous national CE curriculum before the curriculum innovation that was released in 2004 (trial version, see Section 1.2.1). As a consequence, this existing belief did not follow the national CECR goal of developing students' overall communicative competence, according to which writing competence shares equal importance with the other language skills. It also mismatched the principle of integrating the other three language skills to stimulate language development when teaching writing in the SFL genre pedagogy.

The gap between the national CECR goal, and teachers' curricular knowledge and the local syllabus, demonstrates the argument from a previous study that the CECR is "a decoration" rather than a practical teaching instruction to some teachers (J. Gao & Huang, 2010, p. 83). Cultivating students' reading ability is highlighted as the focus in the local CE syllabus. On the contrary, the goal of national CECR is to develop students' overall communicative competence through the CLT approach. Therefore, the generation of the local syllabus did not follow the CECR, although it is supposed to be under the guidance of the national CECR. The CECR is also criticized for its lack of specifications of practical instructions (J. Gao & Huang, 2010), which may explain the divergence between the CECR and the CE syllabus to some extent.

The mismatches between teachers' beliefs and the main principle underpinning the CECR hindered the application of the CLT approach. This finding agrees with the argument from

previous research (e.g. Kirkgöz, 2008; Orafi & Borg, 2008) that such mismatches are the most significant obstacles to implementing any educational innovations (see discussion in Chapter 2). Similarly, the maintenance of teachers' initial belief in the priority of reading probably constrained their implementation of the SFL genre pedagogy and the CLT approach in the CECR innovation. As Fullan (2001) argued, and which is also supported by many studies (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Cohen & Ball, 2007; Iemjinda, 2007; Levitt, 2001; Priestley, 2011), consistent and positive changes in teachers' belief and attitudes towards any innovation are the foundation of any educational change.

The choice of instruction language use is the third factor having a powerful impact on the teacher participants' prior pedagogical content knowledge. As discussed in Section 5.2.3.5 and Section 5.3.3.5 respectively, while L1 instruction was obvious in pre-workshop observations, the increase of L2 use for writing instruction was substantial on most participants in the post-workshop teaching. Significantly positive changes were made by all those teachers who seriously adopted L1 instruction in their pre-workshop teaching practices. However, it is interesting that the changes in teachers' post-workshop teaching turned to coincide with that manifested in their initial teaching. For example, as the only teacher whose initial instruction was L2 dominated, Kate remained in her style of L2 instruction after the workshop training. Similarly, for those teachers whose pre-workshop teaching was largely L1-dominated (e.g. Amy & Jane), L1 instruction was still frequently adopted although the positive changes in their instruction language use was clear. Such similarities in the teachers' pre- and post- workshop teaching suggest that the strong influence of initial beliefs regarding instruction language use was still evident in all teacher participants' pedagogical content knowledge.

Finally, another crucial impact on the teachers' initial pedagogical content knowledge is related to the employment of interaction activities in classroom teaching. Pre-workshop findings suggested that although the teacher participants generally believed in the usefulness of interactions in supporting students' classroom learning, this positive statement was not evident in their teaching

practices. Most classes were dominated by teachers' writing instruction and only one S-S interaction was observed (from Kate's class). Post-workshop observations provided evidence of great changes. Not only were many more S-S activities applied as designed in the instructional plans, but the use of T-S interaction was also greatly increased (see Table 5.1). Such improvement indicated teachers' positive beliefs about the method of interaction.

However, it is also evident from post-workshop observations that the teachers largely replaced the S-S interaction activities in the original instructional designs on the SFL genre pedagogy with their own instruction. Eventually, the initial teacher-centred classroom teaching mode in pre-workshop teaching remained unchanged to a great degree. In other words, while positive changes were evident, it is also the reality that the changes were not as complete as hoped. Apart from the limited time for training in the genre pedagogy and trying the pedagogy in practice, teachers' pre-existing knowledge and beliefs in interactions seemed to play the core role in response to the change limitation. As an important method underlying the SFL genre pedagogy, changes in teachers' attitudes to interactions will be discussed in Section 6.3.

The significant impact of teachers' existing knowledge and beliefs on the development of teachers' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy supports Freeman and Johnson's (1998) argument in reference to teachers' prior knowledge as a powerful factor in teacher learning. Similarly, researchers (Richards, Gallo, & Renandya, n.d.) assert that the greater teaching experience teachers have, the more reliant on their existing principles they become, and the less conscious they become of what they are doing. Accordingly, as experienced EFL teachers, the participants' cognition about the genre pedagogy was strongly influenced by their teaching experience. Consequently, it may be argued that more difficulties will be encountered when aiming to change experienced teachers' (e.g. teachers in the current study) cognition about teaching than to change novice or less experienced teachers. It is therefore not surprising that the change in the level of teacher participants' knowledge of the genre pedagogy was limited to some extent. This information may benefit teacher educators when designing professional training courses to introduce educational changes.

#### ***6.2.3.3 Impact of contextual factors***

In addition to teachers' existing knowledge and beliefs about writing instruction, the variables of teaching contexts were also responsible for the different change levels in TC about the genre pedagogy. Teacher cognition is influenced by the interactions of particular contexts and situations (Yinger & Hendrick-Lee, 1993) which is thus dependent on the teaching environment. It is reasonable to assume that what is effective in one classroom may not necessarily be effective in another due to student variables (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). As discussed previously, it is evident that the professional training in the genre pedagogy had a significant impact on both the teachers' cognition and teaching practices in the current study. In agreement with the findings of the researchers above, there was evidence about the crucial impact of the overall contextual factors on all teacher participants' cognition about teaching writing. In addition, the change in levels of each teacher's cognition about 'what' and 'how' to teach writing also varied due to more specific contextual factors such as their students, classroom situations and so forth. The strong impact of contextual factors on TC about the genre pedagogy seems to support Burns and Knox's (2005) view that applying the SFL genre pedagogy needs to be based on the understanding of the specific contextual factors.

Considering the powerful impact of contextual factors on TC and teaching practices, their close relationship will be further discussed when talking about the consistency level between TC and teaching practices in the following section.

### **6.3 Relationships between Changes in Teachers' Cognition and Actual Practices**

It is generally accepted that what teachers believe strongly influences their classroom practices (Richardson, 1996). However, in the present study, although teachers' statements illustrated great changes in their knowledge of teaching writing, their actual teaching practices reflected a weak incorporation of those changes. Apart from the improvement of using more instruction in L2 as

promoted in the workshop training, what teachers actually did in classroom teaching was not fully congruent with their stated strong beliefs in the genre pedagogy.

The incongruence between teachers' stated beliefs and real teaching practices is considerable in light of teachers' attitudes to interactions. The fundamental notion of the teaching-learning cycle as the implementation model of the genre pedagogy is to guide students' learning through interactions (Derewianka, 2003; Halliday, 1975; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin, 1999). As discussed previously, compared with only one interaction activity in the form of group work observed prior to the pedagogical training, significant changes were evident when trying the genre pedagogy in writing instruction at least in the frequency of employing T-S interactions and the interactional scaffolding strategies, and teachers' successful support given to those students engaged in the interactions. However, the interaction activities (S-S interactions) in the original instructional designs were largely removed from teaching practices in most classes. Teachers' positive comments about the interactions were not fully reflected in their classroom teaching.

Research findings of the current study indicated that teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs regarding effective writing pedagogy, general attitudes to educational changes, self-confidence, together with certain contextual factors (Confucian culture, class size, assessment and curriculum) were the main issues which affected the consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and their actual classroom teaching. Borg (2006) argues that teachers' teaching methods are related to their existing beliefs and practices. The powerful impact of teachers' prior knowledge and belief about writing instruction was also evident in the teacher participants' content knowledge base in the present study (see discussion in previous section). Although from the teacher' perspective, the SFL genre pedagogy was beneficial to their students' learning of writing, the teachers' concerns about the textual forms and grammatical accuracy remained unchanged in their subject matter content knowledge. How the genre pedagogy could serve to achieve this goal seemed to be the most important criterion by which to judge the value of this pedagogy. By contrast, the primary concept of promoting students' learning through engaging in interactions in the genre pedagogy was not seriously considered in teaching practice. Consequently, the strong characteristics of the

product approach in the teachers' pre-existing pedagogical knowledge appeared to have prevented teachers' implementation of the genre pedagogy to a great degree.

Except for the pre-existing knowledge and beliefs, the teachers' general attitudes to applying any educational change is also one of the key sources shaping the consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and real teaching practices. Jane's case is typical in showing the teachers' positive attitudes towards the pedagogical change. Immediately following the teaching experience of trying the genre pedagogy, Jane adapted the instructional designs into her other CE class to teach writing. Her action reflected her positive beliefs in the genre pedagogy as stated in the interviews. Jane's opened-minded attitude towards the application of new pedagogical changes was indicated. Similarly, Mike welcomed the introduction of the genre pedagogy. The obvious changes to his pedagogical choices in the post-workshop teaching demonstrated his positive attitude to the genre pedagogy, as a pedagogical change in general, and as a writing pedagogy specifically. Jane's and Mike's cases suggested that teachers' open-minded attitudes to educational changes is one of the essential bases required when applying any pedagogical change such as the genre pedagogy.

Furthermore, the teachers broadly explained that the challenges they had faced in trial teaching practice were their unfamiliarity with the pedagogy (e.g. Patty) and/or their lack of confidence in instantly assisting their students with appropriate interactional scaffolding strategies (e.g. Jane). According to Shulman (1987), teachers' pedagogical knowledge decides the extent to which teachers are able to make their content knowledge understood for their students. Hence, more or less, teachers' insufficient understanding about the pedagogy resulted in their adjustment (e.g. removal) made to the initial design of interaction activities. Similarly, Borg (2001) emphasizes how teachers' self-perceptions of their subject matter content knowledge influence teachers' views and representation in teaching activities. In the present study, however, not only teachers' self-perceptions of the subject matter content knowledge (knowledge about the genre approach and the Discussion Genre), but also teachers' pedagogical content knowledge (the SFL genre pedagogy) appeared to have impacted teachers' implementation decisions significantly.

Lastly, a few contextual factors showed their strong influence on the teacher participants' abilities to put their beliefs in the genre pedagogy into classroom teaching practice. Numerous researchers (e.g. Borg, 1998, 2003; Faour, 2003; Hedrick et al., 2004; Kang & Cheng, 2014; Khader, 2012) have demonstrated that complex contextual factors have a powerful impact on classroom practices. In the current study, the teacher participants also exhibited considerable changes when applying their beliefs to real classroom practices, due to a number of contextual factors in both the wider environment and in particular, in classrooms. Among them, Confucian culture, class size, teachers' knowledge of the class students, assessment and curriculum were the most evident.

In Confucian culture, students normally follow their teachers passively without questioning (Chan, 1999; Kennedy, 2002; Littrell; On, 1996) and they worry about 'self-effacement' (Chan, 1999) and 'face maintenance' (G. Gao, 1998; Kennedy, 2002; Kirkbride & Tang, 1992). As discussed previously in Section 5.3.3, the teachers (e.g. Cathy, Mike & Patty) generally believed that in the genre pedagogy, whether students were able to achieve certain developments greatly depended on their engagement level in interaction activities. The teachers' concerns reflected their students' inactive participation in previous CE classes, which appears to mirror the impact of Confucian philosophy. The impact of Confucian culture revealed in the present study matches the findings of previous research (G. Hu, 2002; Xiao, 2008) that the strong influence of Confucian philosophy on education in China is largely unchanged.

Teachers' concerns about the level of students' engagement also supported Fang's (2010) conclusion that the inadequate interactions are a major challenge to developing students' communicative competence. Because of the removal of most of the interaction activities in the trial teaching experiences, the teacher-centred classroom teaching style used in initial teaching practices, which is also one of the major constraints of successful implementation CLT in China (Rao, 2002; Siemon, 2010; W. Wang & Gao, 2008; Zeng, 2010), tended to remain in most classes (e.g. Amy, Cathy, Jane, Mike & Patty). The factor of Confucian classroom culture in the current study highlighted the challenge to apply these interactions. Chinese EFL teachers therefore need to

motivate their students to engage more in classroom interactions, because their students are used to being quiet and just passively receiving information from their teachers and peers.

The large class size situation is another possible hindrance to the teachers' full realization of the genre pedagogy. Jane recommended a class size of around 30 students as the best for interactions. Large size class was also demonstrated to be an issue influencing teachers' level of application of curricula innovation in Zheng and Borg's (2014) recent study. Considering the large class size situation of CE teaching in general, this contextual factor has probably constrained the level of teacher application of the pedagogical change in this research study, and may also be a factor behind the shortage of qualified CE teachers. On the other hand, two classes (Jane's class of 29 students and Kate's class of 25 students) were of a relatively small size. This reality may signal the tendency of reducing class size of CE teaching in the research setting. Such on-going change towards reducing class size may be promising for the future application of the genre pedagogy to some degree. Accordingly, the pedagogical change will effectively promote the successful fulfilment of the CLT approach as the goal of the CECR. This is because the goals of the genre pedagogy and those of the CLT approach are very similar (see Section 2.5). "Classroom applications of genre are an outcome of communicative approaches to language teaching" (Hyland, 2007, p. 150). All language skills are advocated in the genre pedagogy. Moreover, the teachers strongly believed that the SFL genre pedagogy was effective in supporting their students' learning development.

In addition to the class size, the teachers' knowledge of students, such as their language proficiency, strongly influenced the teachers' choices of writing instruction. Mike's and Kate's opposite comments on the challenge level of the model text in the instructional designs provided a typical example. When commenting on the same model text (Shopping Online) for deconstruction purposes, Mike suggested the need to increase the challenge level, whereas Kate thought there should be more time allowance, or that the text length should be shortened. The generation of both comments resulted from the teachers' knowledge about their students' English proficiency. Kate's concern about the challenge level of the tasks led to the adjustment she made



in real teaching practice. She assigned one question to each group, instead of all questions of the task in the original design. By doing so, Kate believed that her students with relatively low English proficiency were more able to achieve development with peer support in their ZPD.

Last but not least, the conflicts between the test-driven teaching and learning situation, and the unsuccessful design of writing tasks in the CET, tended to restrain the full realization of the SFL genre pedagogy in teaching practices. Teachers clearly pointed out in Interview 2 that the disharmony between the CECR and its assessment design (CET) was a considerable barrier in applying the genre pedagogy. It was stressed that although the genre pedagogy must be helpful to support students' learning of writing, the successful application of this pedagogy also depended on other objective situations, such as the amount of time assigned for teaching writing (Mike, Int.2T).

The test-driven situation in the research setting indicated that ensuring students' assessment performance (CET performance in particular) was the most important of all requirements when introducing any pedagogical change (e.g. Kate, Mike & Kate). Through reforms, the CET is intended to provide a better indicator of students' language competencies (Y. Jin & Yang, 2006). Unfortunately, even though writing is a component of communicative competence and a focus of the CECR, changes to assessing and evaluating students' writing competence are not evident in the CET. Despite significant reforms in the CET in 2006 in response to the CECR reforms of 2004, particularly with regards to task design and weighting of different language skills (see Figure 1.1), no substantial changes have occurred to meet the requirements of writing tasks (see Appendix 11). Issues such as low weighting and "never-changed three-paragraph format" are of concern to teachers (Chu & Gao, 2006, p. 37). The writing assessment generally consists of a single essay writing task, accounting for 15% of the total mark, which requires students to complete a short essay of over 120 words within 30 minutes on a general topic, and for which an outline is often provided. Similarly, assessing content in writing tasks follows the CECR in a very limited way, regardless of the fact that students are expected to acquire knowledge about a wide range of text types, including Argumentative, Expository, Narrative, functional and academic writing (MoE, 2004; 2007). In CET4, Argumentation is the text type that is most frequently tested

(J. Gao, 2007; H. Li, 2009; Y. Zhang, 2008) and thus attracts the most pedagogical attention in writing classrooms. The marking foci on writing content and accurate language use for expressing messages also remained unchanged (see Appendix 12 for marking criteria). Consequently, the CET reform since 2006 has been unsuccessful in indicating CE students' real writing competence.

In response to this limited attention to writing competence in the CET, the role of writing was minimized in the local CE syllabus and in teaching practices accordingly. It is then understandable that, with limited time allocation, teaching writing was forced to focus on test-taking strategies and students' final writing products, rather than on developing students' real writing competence (see Section 5.2.2).

As Gerami and Noordin (2013) explained, teachers' "real beliefs" can only be implemented in ideal practices, while "modified beliefs" are most appropriate for implementation in practical conditions (p. 1540). In the present study, the modification the Chinese teachers made to their real beliefs about the genre pedagogy in trial teaching practice supports the argument that the way teachers structure their actual practices to represent their beliefs is greatly dependent on the teaching contexts (Clandinin, 1986; Grossman, 1990). Contextual factors will constrain language teachers' ability to put their real beliefs into their teaching practices (Borg, 2003).

This situation of applying the genre pedagogy above in the current study appears to echo F. Zhang and Liu's findings (2013) in a recent study that:

...the Chinese teachers seem to be able to blend the Western-based theories of language teaching and learning with traditional Chinese cultural and educational values without much internal conflict...teachers are sensible, practical and flexible beings: they adopt a selective strategy and seek a middle ground that fits best the local context and their own comfort zone. (p. 14)

Similarly with the teachers in F. Zhang and Liu's study, teacher participants in the present study applied the SFL genre pedagogy into their own teaching contexts, but their real beliefs in the genre pedagogy were modified due to specific contextual factors (e.g. students, class size, and classroom

culture). In other words, teachers altered their real beliefs about the genre pedagogy when receiving the pedagogical training. However, when applying the pedagogy into actual teaching practices, their real beliefs were modified based on their judgment about its feasibility in their own teaching contexts, rather than simply implementing them fully. Such modification was the result from teachers' major concerns about teaching writing such as students' test results, students' engagement level and large class sizes. Therefore, in order to enhance the effectiveness of the SFL genre pedagogy in assisting Chinese students' learning of writing, teachers' firm beliefs in traditional teaching and writing instruction, and certain contextual factors, need to be considered.

To summarize the correspondence level between teachers' stated beliefs and their teaching practices, although the teacher participants perceived the genre pedagogy as broadly effective in assisting students' learning of writing, a very weak connection was shown in their actual classroom teaching. To improve the consistency level and to teach writing for the goal of developing Chinese students' real writing competence, teachers need to improve their pedagogical knowledge and self-perception of the genre pedagogy. Moreover, several obstacles of contextual factors need to be conquered.

#### **6.4 The Relation of Students' Learning Outcomes to Changes in Teachers' Cognition and Teaching Practices**

Although teachers' actual teaching practices did not fully reflect teachers' real belief in the genre pedagogy, the comparison of results of student participants' two writing samples (see Section 5.4) demonstrated the close relationship between students' learning outcomes and the positive changes in teacher knowledge and teaching practices.

The definite relationship between students' learning outcomes and the changes in their teachers' cognition can be suggested from the consistent changes in students' writing samples and their teachers' stated beliefs. As discussed previously in Section 5.4, the improvements which emerged from student participants' writing products were mainly related to schematic structure, movement

between phases in different stages, and the use of conjunctions. The positive changes in these aspects were highly consistent with the benefits of the genre pedagogy as perceived by their teachers (see Section 5.3). In the teacher participants' view, the Deconstruction stage was beneficial as students were supported to learn text structure and language features; in the Joint Construction stage, students were provided with opportunities to share ideas and thus developed their argument; and finally students were enabled to produce their own text individually in the Independent Construction stage.

Likewise, the positive changes in the students' writing samples are inseparable from their teachers' changes in the intervention teaching. The teacher participants tried the genre pedagogy into their CE classroom teaching after they had received the workshop training in the pedagogy, where the students constructed their second writing samples correspondingly. Post-workshop data demonstrated that changes occurred in the teacher participants' content knowledge base (see discussion in Section 6.2). Shulman (1987) argues a teacher's content knowledge serves as "the primary source of student understanding of subject matter" (p. 9). How teachers can make their subject matter content knowledge comprehensible to their particular students relies on teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. Positive changes in the teacher participants' content knowledge, therefore, surely would impact the teachers' teaching practices and influence their students' understanding of the target genre accordingly. The changes in the students' writing samples indicated its close relationship with the changes which happened in their teachers' teaching practices.

It is thus evident that definite relationships existed between the students' writing outcomes and the changes in their teachers' cognition and teaching practices in this research study. This result supports research findings from McCutchen et al. (2002). They reported that teachers can deepen their knowledge of language through intervention; such changes can lead to changes in their teaching practices; and changes in both teacher knowledge and teaching practices can then result in the improvement in student learning. In the present study, changes in teacher knowledge took

place after the teachers were trained in the genre pedagogy, which led to changes in their teaching practices, and finally resulted in changes to students' writing outcomes.

Given the fact that there was only a limited amount of training provided to the teachers, and thus only a short term intervention for students, it was not expected to have a huge impact on either TC and teaching practices or students' learning outcomes. The evidence of a definite connection between students' writing products and the changes to their teachers indicates that if additional time was taken to allow for change to the teachers' cognition and practice and to give student exposure to the intervention, the relationship between changes to teachers and improvements in their students' learning outcomes would be even more pronounced.

## **6.5 Summary of Findings**

This study was conducted to explore the extent to which Chinese EFL teachers valued the SFL genre pedagogy when teaching their students CE writing in their contexts. Particular research interest was placed on teacher participants' cognition about the SFL genre pedagogy as a pedagogical change. Three research sub-questions were addressed, which eventually served to answer the overarching research question as displayed below:

*How do Chinese EFL teachers view the effectiveness of SFL genre pedagogy in supporting their students' learning of writing in College English classes?*

- How do Chinese EFL teachers articulate their current strategies to support students' learning of writing?
- How do Chinese EFL teachers make sense of the genre pedagogy to effectively support students' learning of writing?
- What is the relationship between students' writing outcomes and their teachers' perceptions of the genre pedagogy?

The study's findings shed light on Chinese CE teachers' beliefs in the SFL genre pedagogy, and the complex factors impacting on the teachers when instructing writing with this pedagogical

change. The purpose of this section is to summarize the findings presented in this research study, which is also guided by the three research sub-questions of the study above.

### **6.5.1 Writing instruction is traditional in teachers' initial cognition**

As evident in pre-workshop findings, the teacher participants' initial knowledge of writing instruction is mainly shaped by their curricular knowledge, subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of students. Reading competence has priority over any other language skill in teachers' curricular knowledge, even though developing students' overall communicative competence is the goal of the current CECR. In terms of teaching CE writing, the main concern was placed on writing techniques, the correct forms of students' final products and the development of argument ideas. To transform such subject matter content knowledge into comprehensible forms to the students, model texts are often used in writing instructions for imitation purposes. The traditional product approach is still popular in teachers' pedagogical knowledge. Students' real needs in writing development (weakness in language expression, lack of argument ideas, L1 influence, and passive learning attitude) are not considered, although they are perceived as important in teachers' knowledge of students. The teachers embrace the traditional teacher-centred teaching style where L1 is frequently used in most classes. Only a few T-S interactions and one S-S group work were observed to encourage students' engagement in pre-workshop teachings. The shift to student-centred teaching mode, which is advocated in the CLT approach, does not happen. Rather, all choices made for teaching content and methods are driven by the CET.

It is evident that what is commonly missing in developing the teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction is the professional coursework within Borg's (2003) model of TC. Instead, the impact of peer-discussion and self-learning is evident. Figure 6.1 illustrates the sources impacting on teacher cognition. As shown in the Figure and in previous discussions, the importance of professional training (of the CLT approach underlying the CECR) is not highlighted in the CECR to better support the development of CE teachers' belief in the educational changes.

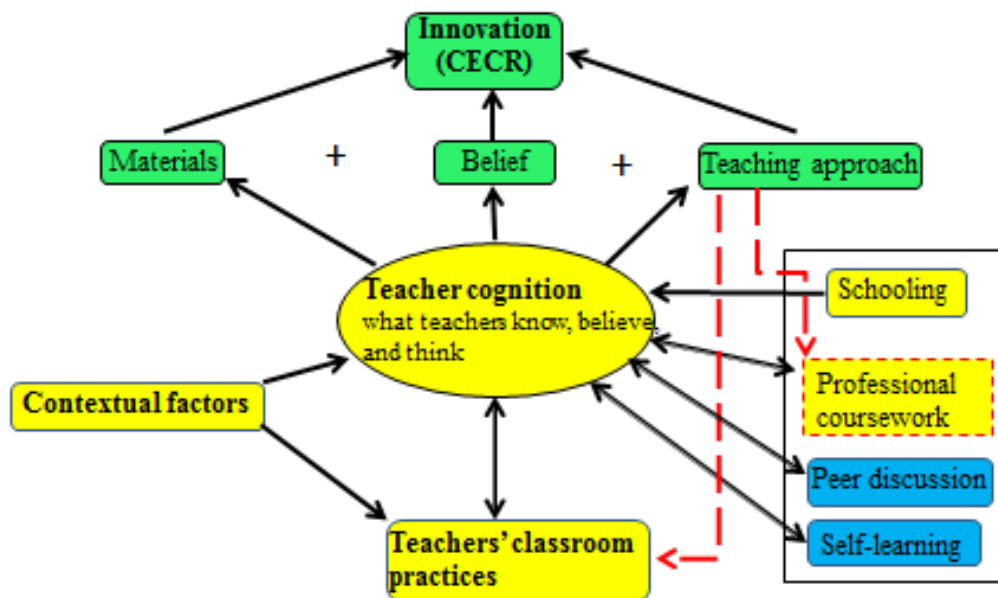


Figure 6.1 CECR Innovation and the Source of Developing Chinese EFL Teachers' Cognition

*Note:* Adapted from Fullan (2001) and Borg (2003, 2006)

### 6.5.2 SFL genre pedagogy could be effective in teaching CE writing

The teacher participants generally believe that in the SFL genre pedagogy, their students can be guided to achieve enhanced understanding about the target genre in a set of interaction activities in the implementation model of the teaching-learning cycle. In particular, changes to teachers' content knowledge base are the most significant. It is believed that in the Deconstruction stage, students can develop their subject matter content knowledge about the text format, text structure and language features. The stage of Joint Construction is particularly valuable for enabling students to develop their argument sequences by exchanging views with peers. As a consequence of these two stages, the teachers are confident that their students will eventually become independent writers of the target genre.

The powerful impact of professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy is apparent not only in teacher participants' stated beliefs, but in their teaching practices as well, although development needs also emerged. For example, except for the great increase of target language use in classroom

discourse, many more interaction activities (both T-S and S-S interactions) are used in post-workshop teaching practices, where students are engaged to share experiences and develop argument ideas with teachers' immediate support.

However, teachers' stated beliefs in the SFL genre pedagogy and their actual teaching practices are not very consistent. The main issues in response to the inconsistency situation include teachers' prior cognition about effective writing instruction, general attitudes to educational changes, self-perceptions of the pedagogy and certain contextual factors (Confucian culture, class size, assessment and curriculum). The teacher participants have firmly maintained their initial beliefs in the traditional product approach concerning the achievement of correct text forms and grammatical accuracy in students' writing products. The important characteristics of the genre pedagogy, such as its social purposes and explicit instruction strategy, are not given sufficient attention.

Moreover, teachers' general attitudes to applying pedagogical changes have a definite impact on the consistency level. Teachers who held a positive attitude and tried to fully try the genre pedagogy (e.g. Kate) or even voluntarily adapted the pedagogy to teaching in another CE class (e.g. Jane), had teaching practices more congruent with their stated beliefs. Likewise, teachers' self-perceptions of the pedagogical change may influence the degree of consistency between the two. The unfamiliarity with the genre pedagogy (e.g. Patty) and/or a lack of confidence in supporting students with appropriate interactional scaffolding, constrains the teachers' implementation of their real beliefs. Additionally, teachers' pedagogical decisions are strongly constrained by the complex contextual factors of Confucian culture, class size, assessment and curriculum. The teachers face these barriers to the encouragement of students' engagement in interactions as a result of the impact of traditional Confucian culture and the generally large size of CE classes. The teaching of CE writing is highly test-driven and focuses on the achievement of high marks in the CET, which mainly concerns the forms of texts. The development of students' real writing competence has drawn very limited attention and fails to reflect the CECR goal. The local syllabus has a similar problem as it tends to highlight reading as the main priority, the goal



set in previous national CE curricula, instead of developing the overall communicative competence.

Apart from the low consistency between teachers' stated beliefs and real teaching practices, there exists the variability of changes in TC and practices shaped by training programs. These variations are closely related to teachers' prior cognition about teaching principles and general attitudes to applying pedagogical changes. Such variations are particularly significant in instructional practice with the pedagogy. For example, the degree to which the Joint Construction stage was applied in the original design included the following: Full realization (by Kate & Mike), brief introduction (by Cathy & Patty) and total removal (by Amy & Jane) (see Section 5.3.3.3). Similarly, while substantial changes are evident in most teachers' application of T-S interactions and interactional scaffolding strategies, some teachers (Amy & Patty) did not make any progress. Mike's and Jane's positive attitudes to applying the pedagogical changes are especially outstanding as mentioned above.

### **6.5.3 Changes in TC and teaching practices link closely to changes in students' learning outcomes**

Research findings of this study suggest that positive changes in students' learning outcomes are closely linked to changes to their teachers' cognition and teaching practices. Most students have shown considerable improvement in controlling the schematic structure to construct a Discussion Genre text, which includes all stages of *issue*, *argument for* and *against*, and *recommendation*. The majority of students' (seven out of nine) Text 2 include both *statement* and *preview* of the issue and have introduced the background information related to the topic issue, rather than having only one of the two phases as they did in their Text 1. Similarly, the students have developed their understanding that evidence from different sides of the topic is required when constructing Discussion Genre texts to persuade readers to accept their points of view. There is also evidence demonstrating students' improvement in the recommendation stage of their Text 2, such as the logic achievement in CL6-2. All achievements above are consistent with the benefits of the SFL

genre pedagogy stated by their teachers and the instructional focus with the pedagogy (see Section 6.5.1). In addition to the overall achievements in all students' writing outcomes, relatively minor improvements have been found from students who initially had high language proficiency (e.g. KH2).

## **6.6 Contributions and Implications**

The research of the present study contributes to a few areas on both practical and theoretical levels. Major contributions and associated implications for four areas will be discussed with concerns about implementing the SFL genre pedagogy in EFL contexts, teacher education in China, future research on TC and the SFL genre pedagogy, and education administration in China.

### **6.6.1 Contributions and implications for implementing SFL genre pedagogy in EFL contexts**

The first implication concerns the value of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting EFL learners' language learning in EFL contexts such as China. Research findings of this study show that the teacher participants generally believe the SFL genre pedagogy is effective in assisting their students' learning of writing. Positive changes in students' post-workshop writing samples provide consistent evidence about the value of this pedagogy. The findings of this study, not only the positive feedback but also the concerns, are valuable for those who have the desire to implement this pedagogy in teaching writing in an EFL context. For example, considering the limited attention teacher participants paid to achieving the social purpose of text construction, it is necessary to further stress this knowledge as both important subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge to teachers when training them about the SFL genre pedagogy. In this pedagogy, writing is a means of delivering meaningful messages for communication purposes, rather than producing accurate forms only. Teachers therefore need to use their pedagogical knowledge to explicitly explain what and how to use functional language to achieve this goal by

deconstructing model texts. Ultimately, students can be enabled to enhance their understandings of how to move forward in stages to achieve social communicative purposes of the target genres.

The implications about the SFL genre pedagogy from this study are not limited to the teaching of CE writing, but could also be beneficial for teaching writing courses and, in broad EFL contexts, can be expanded to teach other language competence as well. A significant challenge in applying the genre pedagogy to teaching CE writing is the limited time that can be assigned for teaching practice. This obstacle will not be a concern if this pedagogy is applied for teaching English major students in China since writing is taught as a separate course assigned with adequate time. English major students thus may expect more benefits from this pedagogy than CE students. Furthermore, the genre pedagogy values very highly the classroom interactions in which the other three language skills are integrated in teaching writing. Therefore, this pedagogy could be employed to teach other forms of language competence on the basis of this study's findings. Similarly, the findings of this study can be useful for those who have the desire to apply the genre pedagogy in other EFL contexts.

#### **6.6.2 Contributions and implications for teacher education in China**

The second contribution and implication area is in reference to in-service teacher education. The research findings suggest that, while the SFL genre pedagogy is commonly perceived as effective for teaching CE writing, the teacher participants also firmly maintained their pre-existing beliefs in the traditional product approach. It is also evident that these experienced EFL teachers lack professional training for academic development. According to Borg's (2003) model of TC, what is missing in developing teacher participants' cognition is the source of professional coursework. The teaching of CE writing was not consciously informed by writing theories which is in line with the argument in W. Zhang's (2008) study. As such, more professional training opportunities need to be provided to Chinese EFL teachers, such as the participants in this study.

When designing teacher education programs, teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs in teaching and learning need to be considered. Findings of this study reveal that the professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy, and the teacher participants' pre-existing knowledge and beliefs about writing instruction, both have powerful impacts on the change in levels of teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy. The strong impact of the training demonstrates the value of in-service teacher education. However, "a powerful factor" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 401) of the influence of teacher participants' prior knowledge and beliefs of writing instruction is also evident. Hence, this "powerful factor" needs to be considered when arranging teacher education programs, particularly when training those experienced teachers.

Lastly, it is important to assign adequate time for both professional training and implementation teaching when introducing any educational change. Learning to teach is "a long-term, complex, developmental process" (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 402). TC is built on teachers' experiences through participating in social contexts, and teaching and learning (Kang & Cheng, 2014; Phipps, 2009). The evidence of changes in teacher participants' cognition, and the gap between this and the teachers' full understanding of the genre pedagogy, indicates that the short duration of the training provided to the teachers in the current study might limit any changes in their beliefs and/or application of the pedagogy into their classroom practice. If more time is assigned for professional training and implementing teaching, more substantial changes to TC could be expected. When introducing educational changes in the future, programmes of teacher education therefore need to ensure time allowance for training of teachers and for teachers' continuous implementation of the pedagogy in their own teaching contexts.

### **6.6.3 Contributions and implications for future research on TC and SFL genre pedagogy**

The third set of contributions and implications is related to future research on TC about EFL writing instruction, the SFL genre pedagogy, and TC about any language teaching approach in general. First of all, the findings of this study enriched the research on TC about the EFL writing instruction, an area where there is relatively little research (Borg, 2006). Apart from the definite

impact of professional training on TC and teaching practices, there is evidence about how the changes in TC interact with teaching practices. How changes to teacher participants' knowledge and practices impact their students' learning outcomes, another area which lacks research findings (Borg, 2006), is also evident in this study. All these findings above have added evidence to support the previous research on EFL teachers' cognition about writing instruction.

This study also has contributions and implications for research on the SFL genre pedagogy. The studies about the genre pedagogy in China are mainly theoretically oriented (see Section 2.4.4). This study's findings provide some empirical evidence which may help those who are interested in researching the usefulness of the genre pedagogy in China and other EFL contexts. For example, the information regarding the positive changes and development needs when applying classroom interactions and student-centred teaching mode; and teachers' cognition about social communicative purposes of text construction and the impact on their writing instruction. These findings have special implications for those EFL contexts where the impact of Confucius culture is significant on classroom teaching and learning, as it is in China.

The implications of this study are also useful for research on TC about any language teaching approaches in general. As one of the few studies focusing on teachers' cognition about the effectiveness of a western writing pedagogy, the findings of this study are valuable for future research with similar purposes. They are also beneficial for researchers who intend to explore TC about other language teaching approaches, such as TC about implementing the CLT approach to teach CE in China. Future studies with similar research purposes may lessen the limitations of this study by providing more time for the data collection period. More time allowance for conducting professional training and implementing the pedagogy in practices could be arranged so that teachers are able to enhance their knowledge about the target genre and the SFL genre pedagogy. Moreover, the teachers can have the opportunity to implement the genre pedagogy based on their own teaching design. In this way, teachers' understanding and perceptions of the pedagogy can be explored based on their decisions made for selecting teaching content and strategies. Accordingly, teachers' cognition about the pedagogical change will be more accurately reflected by both

teachers' statements and teaching practices. The consistency between teachers' stated beliefs and teaching practices would therefore be improved. Likewise, more powerful evidence of changes in students' writing outcomes can be obtained if a long term intervention is provided. The comparison results, indicating the relationship between changes to the teachers' cognition and students' learning outcomes, would also be more convincing. In addition, interviews could also be conducted with student participants to achieve more abundant data regarding the value of the genre pedagogy.

The last implication for future research is in terms of the research methods. The investigation of the genre pedagogy in this study is based on qualitative research methods, and has its limitations if a researcher were to generalize about it when applying it in other EFL contexts, either research on the SFL genre pedagogy or on TC. However, the research findings from this study can not only be used for future studies with similar qualitative research methods, but also might contribute to research undertaken with different methods. For example, on the basis of the research findings from this study, future research may apply quantitative methods or mixed research methods to enhance data analysis. By doing so, apart from providing detailed description and interpretation of data under in-depth investigations, obtained data from large-scale participants can make it possible to generalize about the research findings for other EFL contexts, thus making more contributions.

#### **6.6.4 Contributions and implications for education administration in China**

The final contributions and implications are for education administration in China, including the research setting and MoE. Administration of the university in the research setting may take further actions to reduce the large class sizes (or increase the number of qualified CE teachers), to monitor the generation of the local CE syllabus, and to promote teachers' academic development. This study's findings reveal that the situation of large class sizes in CE teaching is still common, which probably constrains the application of the genre pedagogy and the CLT approach. On the other hand, this situation is likely to be changed. Classes of relatively small size are also evident in this

study, which indicates an on-going reform of reducing class size for CE teaching in the research setting. Therefore, it is necessary to proceed with the ongoing reform, as it is beneficial for developing students' overall communicative competence.

Furthermore, the university administration (e.g. the Faculty of Foreign Languages) needs to make sure the design of the local CE syllabus is guided by the main goal of the CECR. The study's findings indicate that developing students' reading ability has priority over other language competence in the CE syllabus at the research setting. This goal follows the initial national CECR but mismatches the current CECR of developing student's overall communicative competence (a CECR goal starting in 2004). The alignment between the CECR and CE syllabus should be developed to better guide CE teaching practices.

Lastly, it is necessary for the university in the research setting to provide their EFL teachers with more professional training opportunities and to motivate teachers' research attempts. The findings of this study suggest that the teacher participants lack professional training and are not actively involved in academic research. This information is in line with findings of previous research (Borg & Liu, 2013; Q. Gao, 2007; Y. Zhang, Wang, Guo, & Yü, 2003) arguing about Chinese EFL teachers' lack of motivation to do research except for professional promotions. As Borg and Liu (2013) suggested, language teaching organizations need to consider numerous questions (e.g. teachers' expectations of the research target, teachers' current understanding and attitudes towards research engagement, and teachers' needs of support to meet the research target and so forth) to ensure the adopted strategies can support teachers' professional growth and thus can effectively promote teachers' research engagement. In accordance, the university in the research setting may seek for a practical way to efficiently motivate their EFL teachers' academic development in this context.

Implications of this study are important for the administration of the MoE in China for two reasons: The explanation of its approach in the CECR innovation and the provision of relevant trainings to teachers, and its CET assessment system. The first implication is with reference to the

CECR innovation. The main criticism of the current CECR lies in its lack of specifications for implementing the CLT approach in CE classrooms and its limited attention to CE teachers' training in this approach. In other words, teachers' belief (in the CLT approach), "the foundation of achieving lasting reform" (Fullan, 2001, p. 45), was not regarded as important. Consequently, further reforms seem to be necessary in order to add more detailed explanations (e.g. specified instructions about how to assist students' learning to write) about the CLT approach as the key goal for this curriculum innovation. Relevant policies need to be established to equip CE teachers with the innovation. These efforts may help to develop teachers' understanding and beliefs in this top-down CECR innovation launched by the MoE, which is essential to achieve the success of this curricular innovation.

The other implication for the MoE is the administration of CET, the CE assessment system, which is authorized to the National CE Testing Committee on behalf of the MoE. The nationwide large-scale standardised test CET has resulted in high stakes for interested parties. However, the CET has been widely criticized for its inefficiency in reflecting students' real communicative competence and therefore restraining the implementation of the CECR. This limitation is particularly vital in examining students' writing competence. Real changes will not take place unless there have been significant changes in assessment (Torrance, 1996). Therefore, immediate reforms need to be carried out at least in the task design and the mark weightings. Specifically, the weighting of writing tasks needs to be increased to become equivalent with that of the other language competencies, so as to attract more attention from both teaching and learning perspectives. Furthermore, more text types (e.g. Argumentative, Expository, Narrative, functional and academic writing according to the CECR) should be selected as the target genre in various writing tasks, rather than repeatedly focusing solely on Argumentative texts within one writing task. With further reforms to the CET above, positive changes to teachers' pedagogical decisions are more likely to happen. As such, even test-driven teaching situations can provide positive motivation for students' learning of writing.



## 6.7 Conclusion

The Chinese EFL teacher participants' initial writing instructions appear to be traditional. The teachers firmly believe that the traditional product approach is beneficial to support their students' learning of writing, although the teachers may not be consciously aware of that. Overall, writing instruction is highly teacher-centred, textbook-based and test-driven concerning students' final writing products, where model texts are often used for imitation purposes. The social purposes of producing texts in the CLT approach, a mandate of the CECR, have drawn limited attention. While the teacher-centred teaching style tends to be largely impacted by teachers' pre-existing pedagogical belief, the test-driven teaching situation is mainly a result of the high stakes attached to the CET. Considering the lack of specifications for implementing the CLT approach in the CECR, and the maintenance of traditional writing instruction in CE teaching practices, there is an urgent need to promote in-service teacher education for pedagogical changes.

The pre-workshop findings of this study provide great insights into the sources impacting on the teachers' initial cognition about writing instruction and how they are related to the failure of CECR innovation. According to Fullan (2001), 'materials', 'teaching approach' and 'belief' are the three dimensions involved in achieving educational innovation, such as the CECR innovation in the current study. An overview of the relationship between Fullan's notion and Borg's concept of developing TC suggests that the failure of the current CECR innovation seems to be not surprising. As illustrated in Figure 6.1, limited attention is paid to professional training in the CLT approach underlying the CECR innovation goal and accordingly, changes occurring to the teacher participants' beliefs in the innovation are limited. This existing gap between the requirements of successful innovation and the real situation of developing Chinese EFL teachers' cognition, highlights the necessity of training CE teachers about the CLT approach to ensure the occurrence of relevant changes to teachers' belief, which is "the foundation of achieving lasting reforms" (Fullan, 2001, p. 45).

Definite changes to teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction and teaching practices have demonstrated the powerful impact of professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy on TC in this research study. On the whole, all teacher participants strongly believe that the SFL genre pedagogy is valuable to assist their students' learning of writing in CE classes and the achievement of the CECR goals. Similarly, positive changes are evident in teaching practice especially in the application of interactions, interactional scaffolding strategies and target language use in classroom discourse. It thus indicates that teaching practices, related reflections, and professional training can impact teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, since in subsequent interviews after having undertaken trial teaching, teachers' stated beliefs do change.

However, teacher participants' stated beliefs in the SFL genre pedagogy and actual teaching practices are weakly correlated, which is largely influenced by teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs in writing instruction and certain contextual factors. Teachers' pre-existing beliefs in the product approach remained unchanged. Perceived benefits of the genre pedagogy also largely serve to support students' achievement of their final writing products, such as the benefit of deconstructing model texts to develop students' understanding about the forms of target genres. The strong impact of teachers' pre-existing pedagogical beliefs demonstrates that teachers develop their cognition about teaching from "tried and favoured practices" (Breen et al., 2001, p. 495). As experienced teachers with at least over seven years' teaching experience, the powerful impact of the teacher participants' initial cognition is not a surprise. The same is true of the other differences between teachers, especially with regard to beliefs in modelling purpose, attitudes to applying interactions, interactional scaffolding strategies, and the application of L2 language instruction. Thus, the powerful impact of teachers' pre-existing belief needs to be considered when arranging in-service teacher education programmes.

The other issues strongly restraining teachers' realization of the genre pedagogy are a few contextual factors such as Confucian culture, class size, assessment and curriculum. The teachers need to confront these obstacles of Confucian culture so as to finally transfer to the student-centred teaching mode, which is required in both the SFL genre pedagogy and the CLT approach. The CE

assessment system of CET and the local CE syllabus also appear to have hindered teachers' ability to implement their real beliefs. This supports Borg's (2003) argument that contextual factors may hinder language teachers' ability to put their real beliefs into teaching practices. The SFL genre pedagogy is effective in assisting Chinese EFL students to achieve the CECR goal, but reforms in education administration are needed to cross the barriers from the contextual factors above.

Apart from the significant improvements, there has also emerged the need to further develop teachers' understanding of the genre pedagogy, including its underlying principles such as scaffolding strategies and explicit teaching methods. The findings of both definite changes and development needs indicate that learning to teach with a new pedagogy is a long journey in the development process. The teachers have modified their real beliefs in the genre pedagogy when putting it into teaching practice, which is mainly related to certain contextual factors and their self-perceptions of the pedagogy. It is necessary to assign more time allowance for pedagogical training. It is also helpful to extend the period for implementation teaching when introducing a pedagogical change such as the SFL genre pedagogy.

Although what the teacher participants do in their teaching practice is not very consistent with their real beliefs in the SFL genre pedagogy, the majority of the students have demonstrated their sound understanding of the Discussion Genre in their Text 2. They have made progress in their writing products, especially improving the performance in schematic structure to achieve the social purpose, phases to move sequences forward in stages, and conjunction use to achieve the text cohesion. In other words, according to this study's findings, students' learning outcomes are definitely connected to the changes in their teachers' cognition and teaching practices. Additionally, the degree of improvement in students' writing outcomes appears to be interrelated to students' previous language proficiency and learning attitudes.

It is therefore clear that the professional training in the SFL genre pedagogy has had a definite impact on teacher participants' cognition about writing instruction and subsequently on students' learning outcomes. However, what the teachers actually do in their teaching practice appears to

vary depending on a combination of the teachers' real belief in the genre pedagogy, and their prior knowledge and beliefs regarding writing instruction. This combination is also influenced by various contextual factors that constrain the level of implementing teachers' real beliefs in the genre pedagogy into teaching practices. In order to improve the implementation of teachers' real belief in the genre pedagogy and to enhance their teaching practices, long-term training needs to be provided and the period of implementation teaching also needs to be extended, with particular consideration of teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs in writing instruction and the associated complex contextual factors. The SFL genre pedagogy can surely support Chinese students' learning of writing to achieve the goals of the CECR innovation, but reforms on CET assessment and local contextual factors (e.g. class size and syllabus design) also need to be accounted for.

This study has implications for, and made contributions to, a number of areas on both practical and theoretical levels. Specifically, it has implications concerning the value of the SFL genre pedagogy in supporting EFL students' language learning development in their EFL contexts such as China. The findings of this study also contribute to in-service teacher education with regard to the impact of pre-existing TC, time allowance provided for training and implementing pedagogical changes, and the need to motivate teachers' academic development. The contributions made in this study will also complement the existing body of research on TC and the SFL genre pedagogy. It enriches the research on TC about EFL writing instruction and language teaching in general, the relationship between changes in TC and teaching practices, and how changes to teachers are related to their students' learning outcomes. The empirical evidence obtained from this study about the SFL genre pedagogy may be valuable for research on this pedagogy in China and other EFL contexts. Although the results cannot be generalized as a qualitative study, they have implications for researchers who are interested in conducting studies with quantitative or mixed research methods with similar research interests. The final implications of this study can be useful for the MoE, and education administrations involved in setting research projects. It is necessary for the university in the research setting to reduce its large class sizes for teaching CE, to monitor the generation of the local CE syllabus, and to promote teachers'

academic development. The administration of the MoE in China needs to explain its approach to the CECR innovation and provide relevant training to teachers. Ensuring the occurrence of relevant changes to its CET assessment system is also essential.

Apart from the significant contributions and implications outlined above, the current study has also articulated several limitations. Restricting the data collection to a very limited time period is the biggest limitation aside from the other limitations of applying a single case study research method and collecting the data from the researcher's own 'backyard'. Due to the limitation of time for data collection, the post-intervention data was collected in a short period of time. Whether and to what extent the application of the genre pedagogy in a longer period of time might impact TC about teaching of CE writing and students' writing products is unknown and thus strong claim about the effectiveness of the genre pedagogy in supporting Chinese students' learning of writing cannot be made. However, the results from the limited data collected are promising and further research may provide more definitive data on the effectiveness of the genre pedagogy.

## **6.8 Summary of the Chapter**

The motivation for this study is rooted in the gap between the CECR goal and the lack of specifications attached, and the maintenance of traditional writing instructions in teaching practices. Advocating the CLT approach and developing students' overall communicative competence in CE teaching as the central goal of the current CECR is unsuccessful. In particular, writing instruction remains traditional in teaching practices. With particular interest in developing students' writing competence to achieve the CECR goal, the SFL genre pedagogy was tried as its values have been demonstrated in various EFL contexts worldwide.

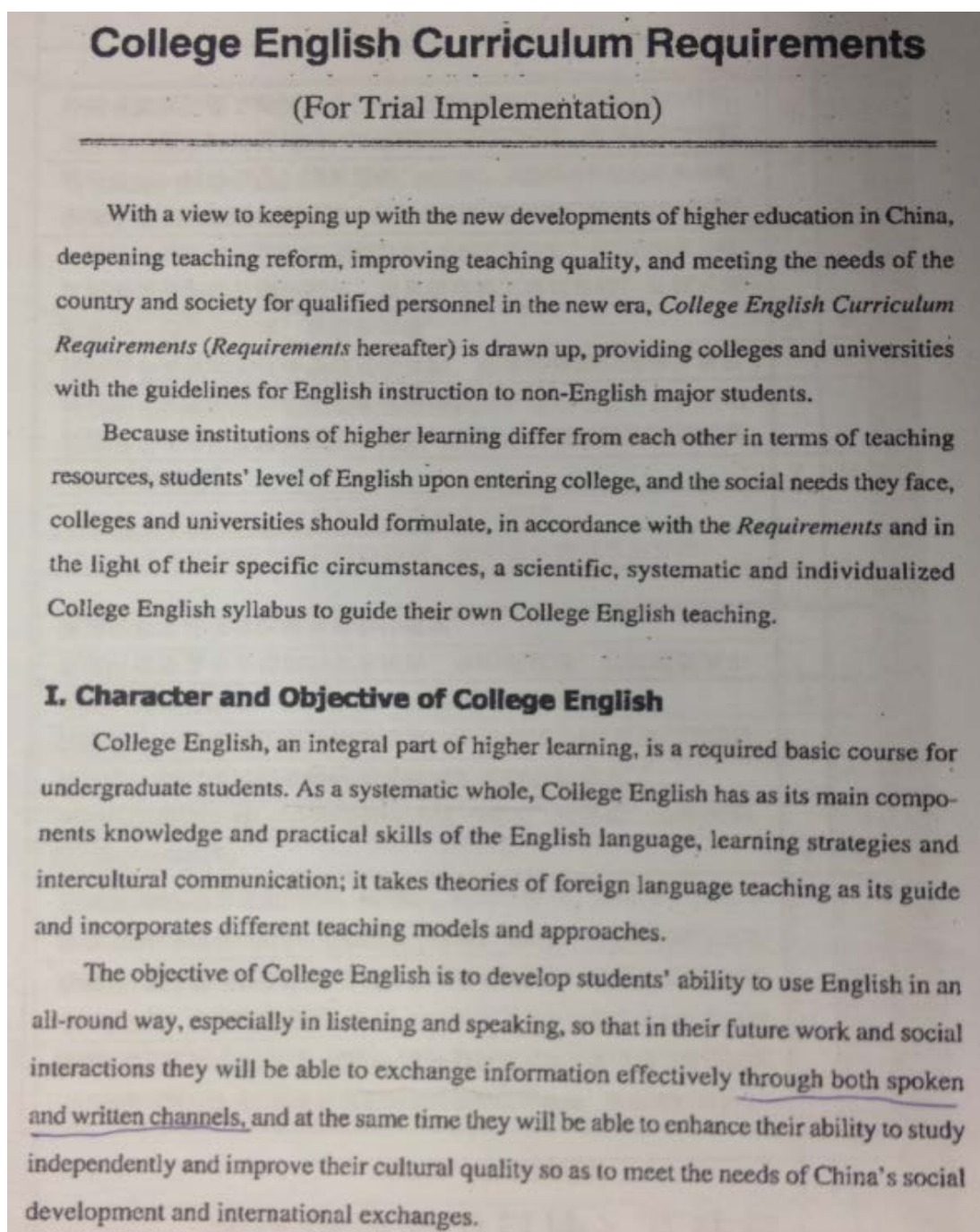
After being trained in the SFL genre pedagogy, positive changes to the teacher participants' cognition are evident in both teachers' statements and teaching practices, although what the teachers state about the pedagogy are not fully consistent with what they actually do in teaching practice. All of the teachers appreciate the value of the genre pedagogy. The changes to the teacher participants' cognition are particularly significant in teachers' subject matter content knowledge,

curricular knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Three major sources impacting teachers' cognition about the genre pedagogy can be identified, namely the professional training and instructional experience, teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs regarding writing instruction, and the various contextual factors. Specifically, the contextual factors of Confucian culture, class size, assessment and curriculum, and teachers' prior cognition about writing instructions, appear to be the main barriers constraining teachers' real beliefs in the genre pedagogy, and constraining the teachers from consistently putting their real beliefs into their actual teaching practices. They are also the major factors leading to the variations in the teachers' acceptance of the pedagogical change in response to the training in the genre pedagogy. Yet, the changes to teachers' cognition and practices are closely related to changes in their students' writing outcomes.

However, as a qualitative case study, the purpose of this study was not to generalize its findings, but to shed light on the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy in Chinese tertiary contexts, where there was an urgent need for effective writing pedagogies to support students' learning of writing. The promising findings of the study therefore may contribute to the implementation of the SFL genre pedagogy in EFL contexts such as China, to teacher education in China, to future research on TC and the SFL genre pedagogy, and to education administration in the Chinese research setting. Overall, exploring the potential of the SFL genre pedagogy, with the focus on teachers' perceptions is a suitable approach to the situation of teaching writing in CE classes.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1 National College English Curriculum Requirements



Note: The trial version of the current CECR released by Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China in 2004.

## Appendix 2 A Sample of Previous CET4 Test Paper

2011 年 6 月大学英语四级考试卷<sup>7</sup>

### Part I Writing (30 minutes)

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay entitled Online Shopping. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 现在网上购物已成为一种时尚
2. 网上购物有很多好处, 但也有不少问题
3. 我的建议

### Part II Reading Comprehension (Skimming and Scanning) (15 minutes)

**Directions:** In this part, you will have 15 minutes to go over the passage quickly and answer the questions on *Answer Sheet 1*. For questions 1-7, choose the best answer from the four choices marked A), B), C) and D). For questions 8-10, complete the sentences with the information given in the passage.

#### British Cuisine: the Best of Old and New

*British cuisine (烹饪) has come of age in recent years as chefs (厨师) combine the best of old and new.*

Why does British food have a reputation for being so bad? Because it is bad! Those are not the most encouraging words to hear just before eating lunch at one of Hong Kong's smartest British restaurants, Alfie's by KEE, but head chef Neil Tomes has more to say.

"The past 15 years or so have been a noticeable period of improvement for food in England," the English chef says, citing the trend in British cuisine for better ingredients, preparation and cooking methods, and more appealing presentation. Chef such as Delia Smith, Nigel Slater, Jamie Oliver and Gordon Ramsay made the public realise that cooking - and eating - didn't have to be a boring thing. And now, most of the British public is familiar even with the extremes of Heston Blumenthal's molecular gastronomy, a form of cooking that employs scientific methods to create the perfect dish.

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<sup>7</sup> The CET4 paper of June 2011, accessed from <http://www.doc88.com/p-23474036659.html>



"It's no longer the case that the common man in England is embarrassed to show he knows about food," Tomes says.

There was plenty of room for improvement. The problems with the nation's cuisine can be traced back to the Second World War. Before the war, much of Britain's food was imported and when German U-boats began attacking ships bringing food to the country, Britain went on rations (配给).

"As rationing came to an end in the 1950s, technology picked up and was used to mass-produce food," Tomes says. "And by then people were just happy to have a food in their kitchens."

They weren't looking for cured meats, organic produce or beautiful presentation; they were looking for whatever they could get their hands on, and this prioritisation of quantity over quality prevailed for decades, meaning a generation was brought up with food that couldn't compete with neighbouring France, Italy, Belgium or Spain.

Before star chefs such as Oliver began making cooking fashionable, it was hard to find a restaurant in London that was open after 9pm. But in recent years the capital's culinary (烹饪的) scene has developed to the point that it is now confident of its ability to please the tastes of any international visitor.

With the opening of Alfie's in April, and others such as The Pawn, two years ago, modern British food has made its way to Hong Kong. "With British food, I think that Hong Kong restaurant are keeping up," says David Tamlyn, the Welsh executive chef at The Pawn in Wan Chai. "Hong Kong diners are extremely responsive to new ideas or presentations, which is good news for new dishes."

Chefs agree that diners in Hong Kong are embracing the modern British trend. Some restaurants are modifying the recipes (菜谱) of British dishes to breathe new life into the classics, while other are using better quality ingredients but remaining true to British traditional and tastes. Tamlyn is in the second camp.

"We select our food very particularly. We use US beef, New Zealand lamb and for our custards (牛奶蛋糊) we use Bird's Custard Powder," Tamlyn says. "Some restaurants go for with eggs, sugar and cream, but British custard is different, and we stay true to that."

Matthew Hill, senior manager at the two-year-old SoHo restaurant Yorkshire Pudding, also uses better ingredients as a means of improving dishes. "There are a lot of existing perceptions about British food and so we can't alter these too much. We're a traditional British restaurant so there are some staples (主菜) that will remain essentially unchanged."

These traditional dishes include fish and chips, steak and kidney pie and large pieces of roasted meats. At Alfie's, the newest of the British restaurants in town and perhaps the most gentlemen's club-like in design, Neil Tomes explains his passion for provenance (原产地). "Britain has started to become really proud of the food it's producing. It has excellent organic farms, beautifully crafted cheeses, high-quality meats."

However, the British don't have a history of exporting their foodstuffs, which makes it difficult for restaurants in Hong Kong to source authentic ingredients.

"We can get a lot of our ingredients once a week from the UK," Tamlyn explains. "But there is also pressure to buy local and save on food miles, which means we take our vegetables from the local markets, and there are a lot that work well with British staples."

The Phoenix, in Mid-Levels, offers the widest interpretation of "British cuisine", while still trying to maintain its soul. The gastro-pub has existed in various locations in Hong Kong since 2002. Singaporean head chef Tommy Teh Kum Chai offers daily specials on a blackboard, rather than sticking to a menu. This enables him to reinterpret British cuisine depending on what is available in the local markets.

"We use a lot of ingredients that people wouldn't perhaps associate as British, but are presented in a British way. Bell peppers stuffed with couscous, alongside ratatouille, is a very popular dish." Although the ingredients may not strike diners as being traditional, they can be found in dishes across Britain.

Even the traditional chefs are aware of the need to adapt to local tastes and customs, while maintaining the Britishness of their cuisine. At Yorkshire Pudding, Hill says that his staff asks diners whether they would like to share their meals. Small dishes, shared meals and "mixing it up" is not something commonly done in Britain, but Yorkshire Pudding will bring full dishes to the table and offer individual plates for each dinner. "That way, people still get the presentation of the dishes as they were designed, but can carve them up however they like," Hill says.

This practice is also popular at The Pawn, although largely for rotisseries (烤肉馆), Tamlyn says. "Some tables will arrive on Sunday, order a whole chicken and a shoulder of lamb or a baby pig, and just stay for hours enjoying everything we bring out for them."

Some British traditions are too sacred (神圣的) to mess with, however, Tomes says.

"I'd never change a full English breakfast."

1. What is British food generally known for?
  - A) Its unique flavor.
  - B) Its bad taste.
  - C) Its special cooking methods.
  - D) Its organic ingredients.
2. The Second World War led to \_\_\_\_ in Britain.
  - A) an inadequate supply of food
  - B) a decrease of grain production
  - C) an increase in food import
  - D) a change in people's eating habits
3. Why couldn't Britain compete with some of its neighboring countries in the post-war decades?
  - A) Its food lacked variety.
  - B) Its people cared more for quantity.
  - C) It was short of well-trained chefs.
  - D) It didn't have flavorful food ingredients.
4. With culinary improvement in recent years, London's restaurants are now able to appeal to the tastes of \_\_\_\_.
  - A) most young people
  - B) elderly British diners
  - C) all kinds of overseas visitors
  - D) upper-class customers
5. What do Hong Kong diners welcome, according to Welsh executive chef David Tamlyn?
  - A) Authentic classic cuisine.
  - B) Locally produced ingredients.
  - C) New ideas and presentations.
  - D) The return of home-style dishes.

6. While using quality ingredients, David Tamlyn insists that the dishes should \_\_\_\_\_.  
A) benefit people's health                      B) look beautiful and inviting  
C) be offered at reasonable prices              D) maintain British traditional tastes
7. Why does Neil Tomes say he loves food ingredients from Britain?  
A) They appeal to people from all over the world.  
B) They are produced on excellent organic forms.  
C) They are processed in a scientific way.  
D) They come in a great variety.
8. Tamlyn says that besides importing ingredients from Britain once a week, his restaurant also buys vegetables from \_\_\_\_\_.
9. The Phoenix in Mid-Levels may not use British ingredients, but presents its dishes \_\_\_\_\_.
10. Yorkshire Pudding is a restaurant which will bring full dishes to the table but offer plates to those diners who would like to \_\_\_\_\_.

### **Part III Listening Comprehension (35 minutes)**

#### **Section A**

**Directions:** *In this section, you will hear 8 short conversations and 2 long conversations. At the end of each conversation, one or more questions will be asked about what was said. Both the conversation and the questions will be spoken only once. After each question there will be a pause. During the pause, you must read the four choices marked A), B), C) and D), and decide which is the best answer. Then mark the corresponding letter on **Answer Sheet 2** with a single line through the center.*

11. A) He is careless about his appearance.  
B) He is ashamed of his present condition.  
C) He changes jobs frequently.  
D) He shaves every other day.
12. A) Jane may be caught in a traffic jam.  
B) Jane should have started a little earlier.  
C) He knows what sort of person Jane is.  
D) He is irritated at Jane.
13. A) Training for the Mid-Atlantic Championships.  
B) Making preparations for a trans-Atlantic trip.  
C) Collecting information about baseball games.  
D) Analyzing their rivals' on-field performance.
14. A) He had a narrow escape in a car accident.  
B) He is hospitalized for a serious injury.  
C) He lost his mother two weeks ago.  
D) He has been having a hard time.
15. A) The woman has known the speaker for a long time.

- B) The man had difficulty understanding the lecture.
  - C) The man is making a fuss about nothing.
  - D) The woman thinks highly of the speaker.
16. A) He has difficulty making sense of logic.  
 B) Statistics and logic are both challenging subjects.  
 C) The woman should seek help from the tutoring service.  
 D) Tutoring services are very popular with students.
17. A) Her overcoat is as stylish as Jill's.  
 B) Jill missed her class last week.  
 C) Jill wore the overcoat last week.  
 D) She is in the same class as the man.
18. A) A computer game.  
 B) An imaginary situation.  
 C) An exciting experience.  
 D) A vacation by the sea.

**Questions 19 to 21 are based on the conversation you have just heard.**

19. A) Beautiful scenery in the countryside.  
 B) Dangers of cross-country skiing.  
 C) Pain and pleasure in sports.  
 D) A sport he participates in.
20. A) He can't find good examples to illustrate his point.  
 B) He can't find a peaceful place to do the assignment.  
 C) He doesn't know how to describe the beautiful country scenery.  
 D) He can't decide whether to include the effort part of skiing.
21. A) New ideas come up as you write.  
 B) Much time is spent on collecting data.  
 C) A lot of effort is made in vain.  
 D) The writer's point of view often changes.

**Questions 22 to 25 are based on the conversation you have just heard.**

22. A) Journalist of a local newspaper.  
 B) Director of evening radio programs.  
 C) Producer of television commercials.  
 D) Hostess of the weekly "Business World".
23. A) He ran three restaurants with his wife's help.  
 B) He and his wife did everything by themselves.  
 C) He worked both as a cook and a waiter.  
 D) He hired a cook and two local waitresses.
24. A) He hardly needs to do any advertising nowadays.  
 B) He advertises a lot on radio and in newspapers.

- C) He spends huge sums on TV commercials every year.
- D) He hires children to distribute ads in shopping centers.
- 25. A) The restaurant location.                      B) The restaurant atmosphere.
- C) The food variety.                              D) The food price.

## Section B

**Directions:** *In this section, you will hear 3 short passages. At the end of each passage, you will hear some questions. Both the passage and the questions will be spoken only once. After you hear a question, you must choose the best answer from the four choices marked A), B), C) and D). Then mark the corresponding letter on **Answer Sheet 2** with a single line through the center.*

### Passage One

**Questions 26 to 28 are based on the conversation you have just heard.**

- 26. A) Its protection is often neglected by children.
- B) It cannot be fully restored once damaged.
- C) There are many false notions about it.
- D) There are various ways to protect it.
- 27. A) It may make the wearer feel tired.
- B) It will gradually weaken the eyes of adults.
- C) It can lead to the loss of vision in children.
- D) It can permanently change the eye structure.
- 28. A) It can never be done with high technology.
- B) It is the best way to restore damaged eyesight.
- C) It is a major achievement in eye surgery.
- D) It can only be partly accomplished now.

### Passage Two

**Questions 29 to 31 are based on the passage you have just heard.**

- 29. A) They think they should follow the current trend.
- B) Nursing homes are well-equipped and convenient.
- C) Adult day-care centers.
- D) They have jobs and other commitments.
- 30. A) They don't want to use up all their life savings.
- B) They fear they will regret it afterwards.
- C) They would like to spend more time with them.
- D) They don't want to see their husbands poorly treated.

31. A) Provide professional standard care.  
B) Be frank and seek help from others.  
C) Be affectionate and cooperative.  
D) Make use of community facilities.

### Passage Three

Questions 32 to 35 are based on the passage you have just heard.

32. A) Health and safety conditions in the workplace.  
B) Rights and responsibilities of company employees.  
C) Common complaints made by office workers.  
D) Conflicts between labor and management.
33. A) Replace its out-dated equipment.  
B) Improve the welfare of affected workers.  
C) Follow the government regulations strictly.  
D) Provide extra health compensation.
34. A) They requested to transfer to a safer department.  
B) They quit work to protect their unborn babies.  
C) They sought help from union representatives.  
D) They wanted to work shorter hours.
35. A) To show how they love winter sports.  
B) To attract the attention from the media.  
C) To protect against the poor working conditions.  
D) To protect themselves against the cold weather.

### Section C

**Directions:** In this section, you will hear a passage three times. When the passage is read for the first time, you should listen carefully for its general idea. When the passage is read for the second time, you are required to fill in the blanks numbered from 36 to 43 with the exact words you have just heard. For blanks numbered from 44 to 46 you are required to fill in the missing information. For these blanks, you can either use the exact words you have just heard or write down the main points in your own words. Finally, when the passage is read for the third time, you should check what you have written.

Contrary to the old warning that time waits for no one, time slows down when you are on the move. It also slows down more as you move faster, which means astronauts (宇航员)\_\_\_\_\_ someday may (36)\_\_\_\_\_ so long in space that they would return to an Earth of the (37)\_\_\_\_\_ future. If you could move at the speed of light, your time would stand still. If you could move faster than light, your time would move (38) \_\_\_\_\_.

Although no form of matter yet (39)\_\_\_\_\_ moves as fast as or faster than light, (40)\_\_\_\_\_ experiments have already confirmed that accelerated (41)\_\_\_\_\_ causes a traveler's time to be stretched. Albert Einstein (42)\_\_\_\_\_ this in 1905, when he (43)\_\_\_\_\_ the concept of relative time as part of his Special Theory of Relativity. A search is now under way to confirm the suspected existence of particles of matter (44)\_\_\_\_\_. An obsession (沉迷)\_\_\_\_\_ with time-saving, gaining, wasting, losing, and mastering it-(45)\_\_\_\_\_. Humanity also has been obsessed with trying to capture the meaning of time. Einstein (46)\_\_\_\_\_. Thus, time and time's relativity are measurable by any hourglass, alarm clock, or an atomic clock that can measure a billionth of a second.

#### Part IV Reading Comprehension (Reading in Depth) (25 minutes)

##### Section A

**Directions:** *In this section, there is a passage with ten blanks. You are required to select one word for each blank from a list of choices given in a word bank following the passage. Read the passage through carefully before making your choices. Each choice in the bank is identified by a letter. Please mark the corresponding letter for each item on **Answer Sheet 2** with a single line through the center. You may not use any of the words in the bank more than once.*

**Questions 47 to 56 are based on the following passage.**

The popular notion that older people need less sleep than younger adults is a myth, scientists said yesterday.

While elderly people -47- to sleep for fewer hours than they did when , this has a(n) -48- effect on their brain's performance and they would benefit from getting more, according to research.

Sean Drummond, a psychiatrist (心理医生) at the University of California, San Diego, said that older people are more likely to suffer from broken sleep, while younger people are better at sleeping -49- straight through the night.

More sleep in old age, however, is -50- with better health, and most older people would feel better and more -51- if they slept for longer periods, he said.

"The ability to sleep in one chunk (整块时间) overnight goes down as we age but the amount of sleep we need to -52- well does not change," Dr Drummond told the

American Association for the Advancement of Science conference in San Diego.

"It's -53- a myth that older people need less sleep. The more healthy an older adult is, the more they sleep like they did when they were -54- . Our data suggests that older adults would benefit from -55- to get as much sleep as they did in their 30s. That's -56- from person to person, but the amount of sleep we had at 35 is probably the same amount we need at 75."

A) alert B) associated C) attracting D) cling E) continuing F) definitely G) different H) efficiently I) formally J) function K) mixed L) negative M) sufficient N) tend O) younger

## Section B

**Directions:** *There are 2 passages in this section. Each passage is followed by some questions or unfinished statements. For each of them there are four choices marked A), B), C) and D). You should decide on the best choice and mark the corresponding letter on **Answer Sheet 2** with a single line through the center.*

### Passage One

**Questions 57 to 61 are based on the following passage.**

Several recent studies have found that being randomly (随机地) assigned to a roommate of another race can lead to increased tolerance but also to a greater likelihood (可能性) of conflict.

Recent reports found that lodging with a student of a different race may decrease prejudice and compel students to engage in more ethnically diverse friendships.

An Ohio State University study also found that black students living with a white roommate saw higher academic success throughout their college careers. Researchers believe this may be caused by social pressure.

In a New York Times article, Sam Roakye-the only black student on his freshman year floor-said that "if you're surrounded by whites, you have something to prove."

Researchers also observed problems resulting from pairing interracial students in residences.

According to two recent studies, randomly assigned roommates of different race are more likely to experience conflicts so strained that one roommate will move out.

An Indiana University study found that interracial roommates were three times as likely as two white roommates to no longer live together by the end of the semester.

Grace Kao, a professor at Penn said she was not surprised by the findings. "This may be the first time that some of these, and lived, with someone of a different race," she said.

At Penn, students are not asked to indicate race when applying for housing. "One of the great things about freshman housing is that, with some exceptions, the process throws you together randomly," said Undergraduate Assembly chairman

Alec Webley. "This is the definition of integration." "I've experienced roommate conflicts between interracial students that have both broken down stereotypes and reinforced stereotypes," said one Penn resident advisor (RA). The RA of two years added that while some conflicts "provided more multicultural acceptance and melding (融合)," there were also "jarring cultural confrontations."

The RA said that these conflicts have also occurred among roommates of the same race.



Kao said she cautions against forming any generalizations based on any one of the studies, noting that more background characteristics of the students need to be studied and explained.

57. What can we learn from some recent studies?
- A) Conflicts between studies of different races are unavoidable.
  - B) Students of different races are prejudiced against each other.
  - C) Interracial lodging does more harm than good.
  - D) Interracial lodging may have diverse outcomes.
58. What does Sam Boakye's remark mean?
- A) White students tend to look down upon their black peers.
  - B) Black students can compete with their white peers academically.
  - C) Black students feel somewhat embarrassed among white peers during the freshman year.
  - D) Being surrounded by white peers motivates a black student to work harder to succeed.
59. What does the Indiana University study show?
- A) Interracial roommates are more likely to fall out.
  - B) Few white students like sharing a room with a black peer.
  - C) Roommates of different races just don't get along.
  - D) Assigning students' lodging randomly is not a good policy.
60. What does Alec Webley consider to be the "definition of integration"?
- A) Students of different races are required to share room.
  - B) Interracial lodging is arranged by the school for freshmen.
  - C) Lodging is assigned to students of exception.
  - D) The school randomly assigns roommates without regard to race.
61. What does Grace Kao say about interracial lodging?
- A) It is unscientific to make generalizations about it without further study.
  - B) Schools should be cautious when making decisions about student lodging.
  - C) Students' racial background should be considered before lodging is assigned.
  - D) Experienced resident advisers should be assigned to handle the problems.

## Passage Two

Questions 62 to 66 are based on the following passage.

Global warming is causing more than 300,000 deaths and about \$125 billion in economic losses each year, according to a report by the Global Humanitarian.

Forum, an organization led by Kofi Annan, the former United Nations secretary general.

The report, to be released Friday, analyzed data and existing studies of health, disaster, population and economic trends. It found that human-influenced climate change was raising the global death rates from illnesses including malnutrition (营养不良) and heat-related health problems.

But even before its release, the report drew criticism from some experts on climate and risk, who questioned its methods and conclusions.

Along with the deaths, the report said that the lives of 325 million people, primarily in poor countries, were being seriously affected by climate change. It projected that the number would double by 2030.

Roger Pielke Jr., a political scientist at the University of Colorado, Boulder, who studies disaster trends, said the Forum's report was "a methodological embarrassment" because there was no way to distinguish deaths or economic losses related to human driven global warming amid the much larger losses resulting from the growth in populations and economic development in vulnerable (易受伤害的) regions. Dr. Pielke said that "climate change is an important problem requiring our utmost attention." But the report, he said, "will harm the cause for action on both climate change and disasters because it is so deeply flawed (有瑕疵的)"

However, Soren Anderasen, a social scientist at Dalberg Global Development Partners who supervised the writing of the report, defended it, saying that it was clear that the numbers. He said the report was aimed at world leaders, who will meet in Copenhagen in December to negotiate a new international climate treaty.

In a press release describing the report, Mr. Annan stressed the need for the negotiations to focus on increasing the flow of money from rich to poor regions to help reduce their vulnerability to climate hazards, while still curbing the emissions of the heat-trapping gases. More than 90% of the human and economic losses from climate change are occurring in poor countries, according to the report.

62. What is the finding of the Global Humanitarian Forum?

- A) Global temperatures affect the rate of economic development.
- B) Rates of death from illness have risen due to global warming.
- C) Malnutrition has caused serious health problems in poor countries.
- D) Economic trends have to do with population and natural disasters.

63. What do we learn about the Forum's report from the passage?

- A) It was challenged by some climate and risk experts.
- B) It aroused a lot of interest in the scientific circles.
- C) It was warmly received by environmentalists.
- D) It caused a big stir in developing countries.

64. What does Dr. Pielke say about the Forum's report?

- A) Its statistics look embarrassing. B) It is invalid in terms of methodology.
- C) It deserves our closest attention. D) Its conclusion is purposely exaggerated.

65. What is Soren Andreassen's view of the report?

- A) Its conclusions are based on carefully collected data.
- B) It is vulnerable to criticism if the statistics are closely examined.
- C) It will give rise to heated discussions at the Copenhagen conference.
- D) Its rough estimates are meant to draw the attention of world leaders.

66. What does Kofi Annan say should be the focus of the Copenhagen conference?
- A) How rich and poor regions can share responsibility in curbing global warming.
  - B) How human and economic losses from climate change can be reduced.
  - C) How emissions of heat-trapping gases can be reduced on a global scale.
  - D) How rich countries can better help poor regions reduce climate hazards.

**Part V Cloze (15 minutes)**

**Directions:** *There are 20 blanks in the following passage. For each blank there are four choices marked A), B), C) and D) on the right side of the paper. You should choose the ONE that best fits into the passage. Then mark the corresponding letter on Answer Sheet 2 with a single line through the center.*

When it comes to eating smart for your heart, stop thinking about short-term fixes and simplify your life with a that will serve you well for years to come.

Smart eating goes beyond analyzing every bite of food you lift -67- your mouth. "In the past we used to believe that -68- amounts of individual nutrients (营养物) were the -69- to good health," says Linda Van Horn, chair of the American Heart Association's Nutrition Committee. "But now we have a -70- understanding of healthy eating and the kinds of food necessary to -71- not only heart disease but disease -72- general," she adds. Scientists now -73- on the broader of food eaten -74- several days or a week -75- than on the number of milligrams (毫克) of this or that -76- at each meal. Fruits, vegetables and whole grains, for example, provide nutrients and plant-based compounds -77- for good health. "The more we learn, the more -78- we are by the wealth of essential substances they -79- ," Van Horn continues, "and how they -80- with each other to keep us healthy." You'll automatically be -81- the right heart-healthy track if vegetables, fruits and whole grains make -82- three quarters of the food on your dinner plate. -83- in the restaurant one quarter with lean meat or chicken, fish or eggs. The foods you choose to eat as well as those you choose to -84- clearly contribute to your well-being. Without a -85- , each of the small decisions you make in this realm can make a big -86- on your health in the years to come.

- 67. A) between    B) through    C) inside    D) to
- 68. A) serious    B) splendid    C) special    D) separate
- 69. A) key    B) point    C) lead    D) center
- 70. A) strict    B) different    C) typical    D) natural
- 71. A) rescue    B) prevent    C) forbid    D) offend
- 72. A) in    B) upon    C) for    D) by
- 73. A) turn    B) put    C) focus    D) carry
- 74. A) over    B) along    C) with    D) beyond
- 75. A) other    B) better    C) rather    D) sooner
- 76. A) conveyed    B) consumed    C) entered    D) exhausted

77. A) vital    B) initial    C) valid    D) radical  
78. A) disturbed    B) depressed    C) amazed    D) amused  
79. A) retain    B) contain    C) attain    D) maintain  
80. A) interfere    B) interact    C) reckon    D) rest  
81. A) at    B) of    C) on    D) within  
82. A) out    B) into    C) off    D) up  
83. A) Engage    B) Fill    C) Insert    D) Pack  
84. A) delete    B) hinder    C) avoid    D) spoil  
85. A) notion    B) hesitation    C) reason    D) doubt  
86. A) outcome    B) function    C) impact    D) commitment

### Part VI Translation (5 minutes)

**Directions:** Complete the sentences by translating into English the Chinese given in brackets. Please write your translation on *Answer Sheet 2*.

87. The university authorities did not approve the regulation, \_\_\_\_\_ (也没有解释为什么).  
88. Jane is tired of dealing with customer complaints and wishes that she \_\_\_\_\_ (能被分配做另一项工作).  
89. John rescued the drowning child \_\_\_\_\_ (冒着自己生命危险).  
90. George called his boss from the airport but it \_\_\_\_\_ (接电话的却是他的助手).  
91. Although he was interested in philosophy, \_\_\_\_\_ (他的父亲说服他) majoring in law.

## 2011年6月英语四级考试听力原文

### Section A

11. M: Shawn's been trying for months to find a job. But I wonder how he could get a job when he looks like that.  
W: Oh, that poor guy! He really should shave himself every other day at least and put on something clean.  
Q: What do we learn about Shawn?  
12. W: I wish Jane would call when she know she'll be late. This is not the first time we've had to wait for her.  
M: I agree. But she does have to drive through very heavy traffic to get here.  
Q: What does the man imply?  
13. M: Congratulations! I heard your baseball team is going to the Middle Atlantic Championship.  
W: Yeah, we're all working real hard right now!

Q: What is the woman's team doing?

14. W: John's been looking after his mother in the hospital. She was injured in a car accident two weeks ago and still in critical condition.

W: Oh, that's terrible. And you know his father passed away last year.

Q: What do we learn about John?

15. M: What a boring speaker! I can hardly stay awake.

W: Well, I don't know. In fact, I think it's been a long time since I've heard anyone is good.

Q: What do we learn from the conversation?

16. W: I'm having a lot of trouble with logic and it seems my professor can't explain it in a way that makes sense to me.

M: You know, there is a tutoring service on campus. I was about to drop statistics before they helped me out.

Q: What does the man mean?

17. M: This is a stylish overcoat. I saw you wearing it last week, didn't I?

W: Oh, that wasn't me. That was my sister Joe. She's in your class.

Q: What does the woman mean?

18. M: Jane, suppose you lost all your money while taking a vacation overseas, what would you do?

W: Well, I guess I'd sell my watch or computer or do some odd jobs till I could afford a return plane ticket.

Q: What are the speakers talking about?

### **Conversation One**

M: Hello, Professor Johnson.

W: Hello, Tony, so what shall we work on today?

M: Well, the problem is that this writing assignment isn't coming out right.

What I thought I was writing on was to talk about what a particular sport means to me when I participate in.

W: What sport did you choose?

M: I decided to write about cross-country skiing.

W: What are you going to say about skiing?

M: That's the problem. I thought I would write about how peaceful it is to be out in the country.

W: So why is that a problem?

M: I'd like to start describing how quite it is to be . I keep mentioning how much effort it takes to keep going. Cross-country skiing isn't as simple as some people think. It takes a lot of energy, but that's not heart of my paper, so I guess I should leave it out. But now I don't know how to explain that feeling of peacefulness without explaining how hard you have to work for it. It all fits together. It's not like just sitting down somewhere and watching the clouds roll by. That's different.

W: Then you have to include that in your point. The peacefulness of cross-country skiing is the kind you earn by effort. Why leave that out? Part of the point you knew beforehand, but part you discovered as you wrote. That's common, right?

M: Yeah, I guess so.

Q19. What is the topic of the man's writing assignment?

Q20. What problem does the man have while working on his paper?

Q21. What does the woman say is common in writing papers?

### **Conversation Two**

W: Good evening and welcome to this week's Business World. It program for and about business people. Tonight we have Mr. Angeleno who came to the US six years ago, and is now an established businessman with three restaurants in town. Tell us Mr. Angeleno, how did you get started?

M: Well I started off with a small diner. I did all the cooking myself and my wife waited on tables. It was really too much work for two people. My cooking is great. And word got around town about the food. Within a year, I had to hire another cook and four waitresses. When that restaurant became very busy, I decided to expand my business. Now with three places my main concern is keeping the business successful and running smoothly.

W: Do you advertise?

M: Oh yes. I don't have any TV commercials, because they are too expensive. But I advertise a lot on radio and in local newspapers. My children used to distribute ads. in nearby shopping centres, but we don't need to do that anymore.

W: Why do you believe you've been so successful?

M: Em, I always serve the freshest possible food and I make the atmosphere as comfortable and as pleasant as I can, so that my customers will want to come back.

W: So you always aim to please the customers?

M: Absolutely! Without them I would at all.

W: Thank you Mr. Angeleno. I think your advice will be helpful to those just starting out in business.

### **Questions 23 to 25 are based on the conversation you have just heard.**

22. What is the woman's occupation

23. What do we learn about Mr. Angeleno's business at its beginning

24. What does Mr. Angeleno say about advertising his businesses.

25. What does the man say contribute to his success?

## **Section B**

### **Passage One**

There are many commonly held beliefs about eye glasses and eyesight that are not proven facts. For instance, some people believe that wearing glasses too soon weakens the eyes. But there is no evidence to show that the structure of eyes is changed by wearing glasses at a young age.

Wearing the wrong glasses, however, can prove harmful. Studies show that for adults there is no danger, but children can develop loss of vision if they have glasses inappropriate for their eyes.

We have all heard some of the common myths about how eyesight gets bad. Most people believe that reading in dim light causes poor eyesight, but that is untrue. Too little light makes the eyes work harder, so they do get tired and strained. Eyestrain also results from reading a lot, reading in bed, and watching too much television. However, although eyestrain may cause some pain or headaches, it does not permanently damage eyesight. Another myth about eyes is that they can be replaced, or transferred from one person to another. There are close to one million nerve fibers that connect the eyeball to the brain, as of yet it is impossible to attach them all in a new person. Only certain parts of the eye can be replaced. But if we keep clearing up the myths and learning more about the eyes, some day a full transplant may be possible.

- 26. What does the speaker want to tell us about eyesight?
- 27. What do studies about wearing the wrong glasses show?
- 28. What do we learn about eye transplanting from the talk?

### **Passage Two**

When people care for an elderly relative, they often do not use available community services such as adult daycare centers. If the caregivers are adult children, they are more likely to use such services, especially because they often have jobs and other responsibilities. In contrast, a spouse usually the wife, is much less likely to use support services or to put the dependent person in a nursing home. Social workers discover that the wife normally tries to take care of her husband herself for as long as she can in order not to use up their life savings. Researchers have found that caring for the elderly can be a very positive experience. The elderly appreciated the care and attention they received. They were affectionate and cooperative. However, even when care giving is satisfying, it is hard work. Social workers and experts on aging offer caregivers and potential caregivers help when arranging for the care of an elderly relative. One consideration is to ask parents what they want before they become sick or dependent. Perhaps they prefer going into a nursing home and can select one in advance. On the other hand, they may prefer their adult children. Caregivers must also learn to state their needs and opinions clearly and ask for help from others especially brothers and sisters. Brothers and sisters are often willing to help, but they may not know what to do.

- 29. Why are adult children more likely to use community services to help care for elderly parents?
- 30. Why are most wives unwilling to put their dependent husbands into nursing homes?
- 31. According to the passage, what must caregivers learn to do?

### **Passage Three**

Since a union representative visited our company to inform us about our rights and protections. My coworkers have been worrying about health conditions and complaining about safety hazards in the workplace. Several of the employees in the computer department, for example, claim to be developing vision problems from having to stare at a video display terminal for about 7 hours a day. The supervisor of the laboratory is beginning to get headaches and dizzy spells because she says it's dangerous to breathe some of the chemical smoke there. An X-rays technician is refusing to do her job until the firm agrees to replace its out-dated equipment. She insists that it's exposing workers to unnecessarily high doses of radiation. She thinks that she may have to contact the Occupational Safety and Health Administration and asked that government agency to inspect the department. I've heard that at a factory in the area two pregnant women who were working with paint requested a transfer to a safer department, because they wanted to prevent damage to their unborn babies. The supervisor of personnel refused the request. In another firm the workers were constantly complaining about the malfunctioning heating system, but the owners was too busy or too mean to do anything about it. Finally, they all met and agree to wear ski-clothing to work the next day. The owner was too embarrassed to talk to his employees. But he had the heating system replaced right away.

32 What does the talk focus on?

33 What did the X-ray technician ask her company to do?

34 What does the speaker say about the two pregnant women working with paint?

35 Why did the workers in the firm wear ski-clothing to work?

## Section C

Contrary to the old warning that time waits for no one, time slows down when you are on the move. It also slows down more as you move faster, which means astronauts some day may survive so long in space that they would return to an Earth of the distant future. If you could move at the speed of light, your time would stand still, if you could move faster than light, your time would move backward. Although no form of matter yet discovered, moves as fast as or faster than light, scientific experiments has already confirmed that accelerated motion causes a traveler's time to be stretched. Albert Einstein predicted this in 1905, when he introduced the concept of relative time as part of his Special Theory of Relativity. A search is now under way to confirm the suspected existence of particles of matter that move at a speed greater than light. And therefore, might serve as our passports to the past. An obsession with time--saving, gaming, wasting, losing and mastering it-- seems to have been a part of humanity for as long as human have existed. Humanity also has been obsessed with trying to capture the meaning of time. Einstein used a definition of time for experimental purposes, as that which is measured by a clock. Thus time and time's relativity are measurable by any hour glass, alarm clock, or atomic clock that can measure a billionth of a second.



## **Appendix 3 Workshop Handout for Teacher Participants**

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## CLASSROOM TEACHING BEFORE THE WORKSHOP

(Pre-workshop Observations)

Before the workshops, teachers will teach writing in the ways that they normally do. At the end of the teaching, teachers will ask the students to write a text within 30 minutes on a topic provided by the researcher (which is selected from a previous CET4 paper). The text will be the same genre that is going to be focused on in the following workshops. All students' writing samples will be gathered but only those student participants' papers will be collected by the researcher for detailed analysis.

### Writing Prompt

#### Directions<sup>8</sup>:

For this part, you are allowed thirty minutes to write a composition on the topic: **Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?** The first sentence has already been written for you. You should write at least 120 words, and base your composition on the outline given in Chinese below:

1. 很多人认为有必要举行英语口语考试，理由是.....  
(Many people think it is necessary to hold spoken English test, because...)
2. 也有人持不同意见，..... (There are also some people who have different opinions...)
3. 我的看法和打算 (My views and plans)

A test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the College English Test (CET). ...

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<sup>8</sup> This task is based on the writing task of CET4 in June, 2000. However, the original requirement of text length is 100 words. The requirement of length is changed to 120 words here in order to be consistent with the current CET4 requirements. The outline is translated by the researcher.

## WORKSHOP FOR TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

### Part 1 Some Definitions in Genre-based Pedagogy

#### Socio-cultural theories

##### 1. What is scaffolding, ZPD & mediation

###### 1) Scaffolding

A changing quality of support over a teaching session, in which a more skilled partner adjusts the assistance he or she provides to fit the child's current level of performance. More support is offered when a task is new; less is provided as the child's competence increases, therefore fostering the child's autonomy and independent master. (Berk & Winsler, 1995, p. 171)

###### 2) ZPD (zone of proximal development)

The distance between what learners can do independently and what they can do when collaborating with more capable others (Vygotsky, 1978).

###### 3) Mediation (3 types) (Feuerstein & Rand, 1997)

- Creating learning environments

Encouraging engagement with the environment such as initiating communication, responding and focusing attention

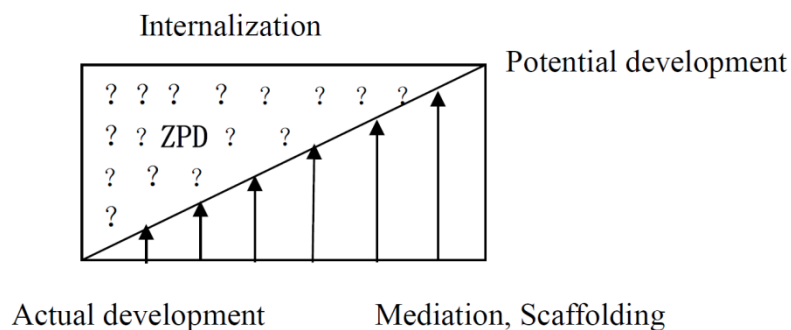
- Connecting learning environments

Making connections and demonstrating curiosity such as questioning, explaining, comparing and referring to time

- Creating lifelong learners

Encouraging self-control & self-esteem, reinforce positive learning behavior such as planning and praising

###### 4) A diagram based on (Pagliaro, 2010)



## **2. To make learning take place in the ZPD**

- 1) To consider both at the macro level (before-class designs) and the micro level (in-class guidance)
- 2) To provide learners with assistance of direct scaffolding in real time and indirect scaffolding via tutorial material such as worksheets

## **3. Application**

- 1) Scaffolding techniques
  - Indirect instruction (e.g. hints, information, modelling, questioning, expanding etc.)
  - Specifications and sequencing of activities
  - Provision of materials, equipment and facilities (e.g. worksheets, prompts written on index cards)
  - Other environment contributions
- 2) To apply ZPD is to try to do the following:
  - Facilitate individualized instruction whenever possible (e.g. You walk around in the class looking what students do and help those who got stuck.)
  - Teach how to use multi-sensory methods, both verbal and visual modes (e.g. verbal: Listening to lectures, audiotapes, participating in group discussion; visual: Using aids such as film, video, maps and charts.)
  - In planning a lesson, consider:
    - How to enthuse students at the upper levels without overwhelming them? (You challenge them but at the level slightly above their ability—this is working in the ZPD.)
    - What is the instructional zone of the class?
    - Where might difficulties occur, and how could you provide support?

## **Part 2 Genre-based Pedagogy**

### **I. Genre Theories**

#### **1. Genre as a text type**

- 1) **Discussion Genre**<sup>9</sup>
- 2) **What is Discussion Genre for?**

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<sup>9</sup> Based on Callaghan and Knapp (1989).

To present information about and arguments for **both sides of a topical issue**, concluding with a **recommendation** based on the weight of evidence.

Discussions are commonly used by Royal Commissions, Local Councils and Classroom Discussions, staff meetings, household decisions and at dinner-parties to look at two sides of an issue.

### 3) When do we use the Discussion Genre?

In formal situations ----- Oral and written modes of Discussions

In informal situations ----- Oral modes of Discussions

#### Examples:

Oral mode	Written mode
<b>Classroom Discussions</b>	newspaper articles and editorials
<b>Parliamentary debate</b>	school essays (CET, achievement tests)
<b>Media panel Discussions</b>	environmental impact statements
	feasibility studies
	Royal Commissions

**Oral mode:** Many issues of the Discussion Genre in various contexts such as

<b>School</b>	uniforms, discipline, canteen, playground
<b>Local</b>	housing, roads, recreation, sports
<b>City</b>	education, transport, environment
<b>National</b>	economy, employment, inflation, one-child policy
<b>Global</b>	greenhouse, population

**Written mode:** Based on the discussions on oral mode, teachers may provide students some examples of discussions **such as**

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Newspaper articles</li> <li>- <b>Exam papers (writing tasks in CET)</b></li> <li>- School textbooks</li> <li>- leaflets (political, environmental, development, social, health)</li> </ul>
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## 2. Genre as a writing approach

Genre is a staged, goal-oriented social process (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987)

Staged: *It usually takes more than one phase of meaning to work through a genre,*

Goal-oriented: *Phases are designed to accomplish something,*

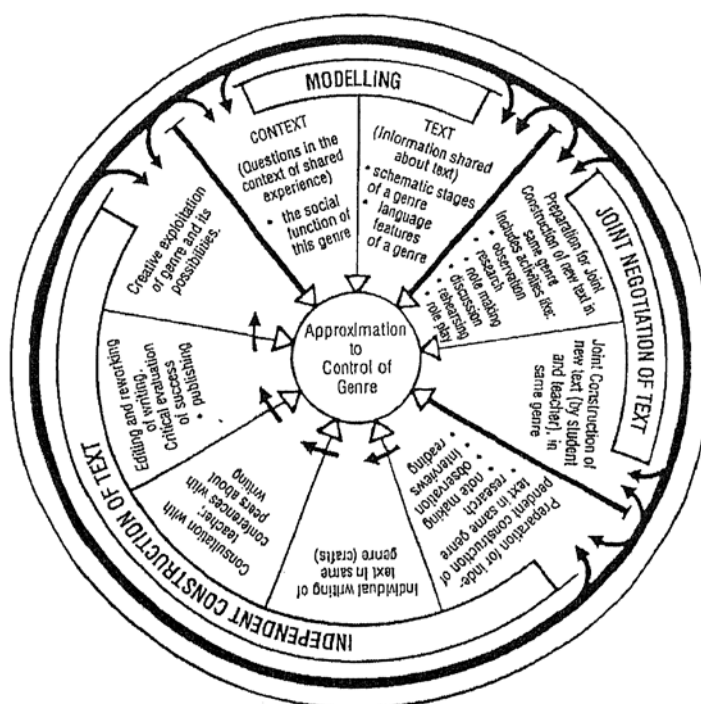
Social: *We undertake genres interactively with others.*

### 3. Genre-based pedagogy

Genre is implemented in a teaching-learning cycle in classroom teaching. Theories underpinning the genre pedagogy include genre theory and the concept of scaffolding.

## II. Classroom Implementation of the Cycle

### 1. Teaching Discussion Genre in the Teaching-learning (Curriculum) Cycle



The curriculum model (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988, p. 39)

### 2. Main characteristics of the whole cycle<sup>10</sup>

- 1) To make students familiar with **the topic of the text** (building field) and to make students understand **the social purpose of the genre** (setting context) involve in all the stages of the cycle
- 2) Making genre knowledge **explicit** and sharing it with the teacher and peers with promoted **scaffolding** (see Part Three) and interaction. Scaffolding plays an essential role in the cycle especially at the stages of Modelling and Joint Negotiation of Text.
- 3) Entering into any stage with **flexibility**. The cycle can be started at any stage depending on the pedagogical goal of the teacher (e.g. learners' needs etc.).
- 4) Supporting students to take control of a new text type (genre) via flexible stages (according to students' needs) is the **ultimate goal** of this teaching-learning cycle design.

<sup>10</sup> Based on Callaghan and Knapp (1988); Callaghan and Rothery (1988, p.39).

### 3. Main stages:

- 1) Modelling
- 2) Joint Construction of Text
- 3) Independent Construction of Text

## Stage 1 Modelling

To pull apart a model text in order to help students understand how it works by introducing to them ‘generic features’ and ‘linguistic features’ of a model of the target genre and their functions in achieving communicative purpose of the genre

### 1. 2 key elements<sup>11</sup>:

- 1) **Teacher-led modelling** of the targeted genre (text type) within the field of the study (see Model 1 in the following instructional plans)
- 2) **Student-led activities** (written & oral) to develop the familiarity of the genre (see Model 2 in the following instructional plans)

### 2. Key steps

- 1) Showing a model or models  
(Asking students questions) to explore the social context of a given article of the Discussion Genre (e.g. Ex.2 in the final instructional plans)
- 2) Deconstructing generic (schematic) structure (e.g. Ex.3-5 in the final instructional plans)
  - Issue
  - Arguments for and against (pros and cons) OR
  - Statements of differing points of view
  - Recommendations
- 3) Deconstructing language features (e.g. Ex. 6-8 in the final instructional plans)
  - Focus on generic human and non-human participants
  - Use of simple present tense
  - Use of logical conjunctive relations
  - Use of material, relational and mental processes

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<sup>11</sup> According to Humphrey and Macnaught (2011), ideally, one text example of the genre can be used to demonstrate the features by the teacher while a second example can be used for student-centered analysis purpose.

### 3. **Key activities**

- 1) Highlighting language features in the example (e.g. Ex.6 & 7 in the final instructional plans)
- 2) Doing close exercises
- 3) Reassembling segments of the text (e.g. Ex. 3 & 4 in the final instructional plans)
- 4) Discussing the linguistic patterns to assist in achieving the social goal of the text (e.g. Ex.5 in the final instructional plans)

### 4. **How to scaffold learning for students?**

- 1) Some questions need to be asked to guide students to analyze the model text (e.g. Ex.1-5 in the final instructional plans)
- 2) Various activities can be designed in the classroom to scaffold learning for students during the processes such as in groups and pairs (e.g. Ex.1-10 in the final instructional plans)

## Stage 2 Joint Construction of Text

The teacher and students work collaboratively to construct a text of the same genre. Contribution from students are mediated and then selectively scribed on the whiteboard or screen by the teacher.

Note: You need to use scaffolding in this stage. To provide students with sufficient but subtle help to keep them going. Use the techniques of contingent instruction such as questioning, hinting, brainstorming, expanding and re-shaping the students' words.

### 1. **Key steps**<sup>12</sup>

#### 1) **Bridging**

Creating a link between analyzing the model and actually constructing a similar text: A text analyst → text creator

(Notes: Teacher and students may work together through activities like brainstorming or classifying to assist students in terms of the flow of information, development of themes within and across paragraphs; peer-peer collaboration may be employed to share their understanding, experience and plan content for their writing.)

#### 2) **Text negotiation** involves teacher-led collaborative writing

<sup>12</sup> Based on Humphrey and Macnaught (2011). Examples are adapted from page 106 to page 111.



The teacher invites or solicits suggestions from the students which are based on peers' consideration and query and is followed by careful evaluation.

## 2. **Key features**

- 1) Re-reading the preceding text to orientate students and to direct their attention to the logogenesis of the text
- 2) Allowing time for thinking
- 3) Repeating or recasting suggestions
- 4) Providing explicit praise or encouragement
- 5) Evaluating with honesty when selecting preferred language (video clip “scaffolding the writing process”<sup>13</sup>)
- 6) Review involves an examination of the newly completed section
- 7) The teacher and the students jointly edit the text which was just constructed collaboratively on the whiteboard or screen. This step provides students with further opportunities to explore the certain language choices that have been selected over others (video clip “teaching procedure genre”<sup>14</sup>).

## **Stage 3 Independent Construction of Text**

Students construct their own writing individually on the third text of the same genre, scaffolding finally removed.

e.g. Comprehension activities in response to written mate such as performing a task, sequencing pictures, numbering, answering questions and so on. Independent writing activities include writing tasks demand students draft and present whole texts<sup>15</sup>.

<sup>13</sup> [http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dZEs\\_x00bMQ](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dZEs_x00bMQ)

<sup>14</sup> <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kq2tr1ELNmw>

<sup>15</sup> Adapted from Feez (1998, p. 3).

## Part 3 Teaching Discussion Genre through Teaching-Learning Cycle

### (A Lesson Plan)

#### Stage 1.1 Modelling (Model 1: Teacher-led deconstruction) (Key step 1)

##### 1. Exploring the social context of the text (Key step 2)

(Students can be guided by a set of questions offered by the teacher to explore the social context of the text.)

Advertisement <sup>16</sup>	
<p>There are many reasons for both sides of the question, “Should we have printed advertisements?” Many people have strong views and feel that ads are nothing more than useless junk mail, while other people feel it is an important source of information.</p>	<p>What is the purpose of the article? (<i>To discuss whether we should have printed advertisements.</i>)</p>
<p>There are some reasons why we should have advertisements in newspapers and magazines. One reason is ads give us information about what is available. Looking at ads we can find out what is on sale and what is new in the market. This is an easy way of shopping. Another reason is that advertisements promote business. When shop owners compete against each other the buyer saves money, more people come to their shops and they sell more goods.</p>	<p>Who may write the article? (<i>journalists, normal people, university students, business people...</i>)</p>
<p>On the other hand, some people argue ads should not be put in newspapers and magazines for these various reasons. Firstly, ads cost the shopkeepers a lot of money to print onto paper. Also some people don’t like finding junk mail in their letter boxes. People may also find the ads not very interesting. Ads also influence people to buy items they don’t need and can’t really afford. Ads use up a lot of space and a lot of effort has to be made to make the ads eye-catching.</p>	<p>Who is it written for? (<i>normal people, teachers, business people, ads companies...</i>)</p>
<p>After looking at both sides of the issue, I think we should not have advertisements because they cost a lot of money to print onto paper. Ads also take up a lot of room in the papers and I don’t think I find some of them interesting. I mainly disagree because it’s junk mail.</p>	<p>Who would possibly read a Discussion? (<i>normal people, students, teachers, royal commissions, councils...</i>)</p> <p>When do you think you may need to write or read a Discussion? (<i>essay writing, tests...</i>)</p>

<sup>16</sup> Note: The article is adapted from Callaghan & Rothery (1988).

## 2. Deconstructing generic structure (Key step 3)

(Students may benefit from peer scaffolding through collaborative tasks such as questions and answers as listed below.)

- 1) How does the writer state the issue?
- 2) What are 'the arguments for' and the points?
- 3) What are 'the arguments against' and the points?
- 4) What are the recommendations?

<b>Advertisement</b>	
<b>Issue</b> {	<p>Statement of Issue → There are many reasons for both sides of the question, "Should we have printed advertisements?" Many people have strong views and feel that ads are nothing more than useless junk mail, while other people feel it is an important source of information.</p> <p>Preview →</p>
<b>Arguments for</b> {	<p>Point for → There are some reasons why we should have advertisements in newspapers and magazines. <u>One reason is ads give us information about what is available.</u> Looking at ads we can find out what is on sale and what is new in the market. This is an easy way of shopping. <u>Another reason is that advertisements promote business.</u> When shop owners compete against each other the buyer saves money, more people come to their shops and they sell more goods.</p> <p>Elaboration →</p> <p>Point for →</p> <p>Elaboration →</p>
<b>Argument against</b> — Points against →	<p>On the other hand, some people argue ads should not be put in newspapers and magazines for these various reasons. <u>Firstly, ads cost the shopkeepers a lot of money to print onto paper. Also some people don't like finding junk mail in their letter boxes. People may also find the ads not very interesting. Ads also influence people to buy items they don't need and can't really afford. Ads use up a lot of space and a lot of effort has to be made to make the ads eyecatching.</u></p>
<b>Recommendations</b> →	<p>After looking at both sides of the issue, I think we should not have advertisements because they cost a lot of money to print onto paper. Ads also take up a lot of room in the papers and I don't think I find some of them interesting. I mainly disagree because it's junk mail.</p>

### 3. Deconstructing language features (Key step 4)

(Asking students to find the use of simple present tense in the text individually and then compare with peers. It can promote peer-scaffolding. Students will also learn how verb tenses are deployed to achieve social purposes in a Discussion Genre. Similar activity can be used to teach the use of Conjunctions in a Discussion Genre text.)

#### Discussions Use Simple Present Tense

There **are** many reasons for both sides of the question, “Should we have printed advertisements?” Many people **have** strong views and **feel** that ads **are** nothing more than useless junk mail, while other people **feel** it **is** an important source of information.

There **are** some reasons why we should **have** advertisements in newspapers and magazines. One reason **is** ads **give** us information about what **is** available. Looking at ads we can find out what **is** on sale and what **is** new in the market. This **is** an easy way of shopping. Another reason **is** that advertisements **promote** business. When shop owners **compete** against each other the buyer **saves** money, more people **come** to their shops and they **sell** more goods.

On the other hand, some people **argue** ads should not be put in newspapers and magazines for these various reasons. Firstly, ads **cost** the shopkeepers a lot of money to print onto paper. Also some people **don’t like** finding junk mail in their letter boxes. People may also find the ads not very interesting. Ads also **influence** people to buy items they **don’t need** and **can’t really afford**. Ads **use up** a lot of space and a lot of effort **has to be made to** make the ads eyecatching.

After looking at both sides of the issue, I **think** we should not have advertisements because they **cost** a lot of money to print onto paper. Ads also **take up** a lot of room in the papers and I **don’t think** I **find** some of them interesting. I mainly **disagree** because it’s junk mail.

#### Discussions Use Logical Conjunctions

There are many reasons for both sides of the question, “Should we have printed advertisements?” Many people have strong views **and** feel that ads are nothing more than useless junk mail, **while** other people feel it is an important source of information.

There are some reasons why we should have advertisements in newspapers **and** magazines. One reason is ads give us information about what is available. Looking at ads we can find out what is on sale **and** what is new in the market. This is an easy way of shopping. Another reason is that advertisements promote business. When shop owners compete against each other the buyer saves money, more people come to their shops **and** they sell more goods.

**On the other hand**, some people argue ads should not be put in newspapers and magazines for these various reasons. **Firstly**, ads cost the shopkeepers a lot of money to print onto paper. **Also** some people don’t like finding junk mail in their letter boxes. People may **also** find the ads not

very interesting. Ads also influence people to buy items they don't need and can't really afford. Ads use up a lot of space and a lot of effort has to be made to make the ads eye-catching.

After looking at both sides of the issue, I think we should not have advertisements because they cost a lot of money to print onto paper. Ads also take up a lot of room in the papers and I don't think I find some of them interesting. I mainly disagree because it's junk mail.

### Stage 1.2 Modelling (Model 2: Student-led deconstruction) (Key step 1)

(After the teacher-led deconstruction a text, students will be given an opportunity to deconstruct a similar text with the teacher's guidance. This is to familiarize the students with text features of the Discussion Genre). Various activities with peers can be employed for peer scaffolding purposes.)

**Directions<sup>17</sup>:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Online Shopping**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 现在网上购物已成为一种时尚 (Online shopping has become a popularity)
2. 网上购物有很多好处，但也有不少问题 (Online shopping has many merits and disadvantages)
3. 我的建议 (My suggestions)

### Activities for individual students: (Exercise 1 in the final instructional plans)

- 1) Put the following sentences into proper order to finish the article.
- 2) Try to divide the article into proper paragraphs.

With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people...

- A. I suggest that we be more cautious when we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.
- B. On the other, when we fill in our personal information and the credit card number online, these privacy are at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.
- C. On the one hand, since it is impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood.

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<sup>17</sup> It is the writing task of CET4 in June 2011.

- D. To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword.
- E. Moreover, when shopping on the e-mall, we are exposed to more options at the same time.  
This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality.
- F. However, it also gives rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us.
- G. Further, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.
- H. First of all, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, and study.
- I. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.
- J. There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping.
- K. However, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, and enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks.

**Answer:** K, I, J, H, E, G, F, C, B, D, A

# 1. Exploring the social context of the text (Key step 2)

**Activity:** Students explore the social context of the text in pairs/groups by answering questions  
(Exercise 2 in the final instructional plans)

<p style="text-align: center;">Online Shopping<sup>18</sup></p> <p>With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people. However, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, and enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.</p> <p>There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping. First of all, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, and study. Moreover, When shopping on the e-mall,</p>	<p>What is the purpose of the article? (To discuss the merits and disadvantages of online shopping.)</p> <p>Who may write the article? (journalists, students, normal people...)</p>
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<sup>18</sup> It is a writing based on CET4 writing task in June 2011; The article is retrieved from <http://www.exam8.com/english/CET46/ziliao/CET4/xz/201106/2028565.html>

<p>we are exposed to more options at the same time. This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality. Further, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.</p> <p>However, it also gives rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us. On the one hand, since it is impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood. On the other hand, when we fill in our personal information and the credit card number online, these privacy are at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.</p> <p>To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword. I suggest that we be more cautious when we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.</p>	<p>Who is it written for? (<i>students, normal people, people who are interested in online shopping...</i>)</p> <p>When do you think you may need to write or read a Discussion? (<i>essay writing, tests...</i>)</p>
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## 2. Deconstructing generic structure (Key step 3)

**Activity:** Ask the students to read the article and answer the following questions. They may discuss in pairs or groups (**Exercise 3 in the final instructional plans**). Read the article and answer the following questions by discussing in pairs or groups.

- 1) How does the writer state the issue?
- 2) How is the Discussion divided up on the page? Why?
- 3) What does each paragraph tell us?
- 4) What is the topic sentence of ‘the arguments for’ and what are the points?
- 5) What is the topic sentence of ‘the arguments against’ and what are the points?
- 6) What are the recommendations?

<p><b>Issue</b></p> <p>Statement of Issue →</p> <p><b>Arguments for</b> {</p> <p>Point for →</p> <p>Point for →</p> <p>Point for →</p> <p><b>Arguments against</b> {</p> <p>Point against →</p> <p>Point against →</p> <p><b>Recommendation</b></p> <p>Summary →</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Online Shopping<sup>1</sup></b></p> <p>With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people. However, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, and enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks. <u>Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.</u></p> <p>There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping. <u>First of all</u>, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, and study. <u>Moreover</u>, when shopping on the e-mall, we are exposed to more options at the same time. This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality. <u>Further</u>, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.</p> <p>However, it also gives rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us. <u>On the one hand</u>, since it is impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood. <u>On the other hand</u>, when we fill in our personal information and the credit card number online, <u>these</u> privacy are at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.</p> <p>To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword. I suggest that we be more cautious when we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.</p>
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Note: Based on Challaghan & Knapp (1989, p. 27)

**Activity: (Exercise 4 in the final instructional plans)**

Ask students to discuss and conclude the structure of the Discussion Genre in pairs or groups

- 1) In Discussions, how does the 1st paragraph start with?
- 2) What does the 2nd paragraph contain?
- 3) What does the 3rd paragraph contain?
- 4) What does the final paragraph contain?



- The teacher introduces the main aspects regarding the structure of a Discussion Genre text below

- In Discussions, the opening or topic sentence of the first paragraph is usually the statement of issue.
- The second paragraph contains the arguments for ‘online shopping’ with reasons.
- The third paragraph outlines the arguments against ‘online shopping’ with reasons.
- The final paragraph gives us the recommendations.

**Activity: (Exercise 5 in the final instructional plans)**

Students work/brainstorm with their peer(s) to answer each question regarding some important issues in a Discussion Genre text which is followed by the teacher’s more systematic introduction.

**Questions:**

- 1) How to open/start the introducing paragraph in a Discussion Genre text?
- 2) How to introduce another viewpoint (eg. What kind of conjunctions can be applied)?
- 3) How to summarize the viewpoints from two different sides before you present your recommendation?
- 4) How to introduce your recommendation?
- 5) How to write about the significance of something?

Ways to open the introductory paragraph

- The current debate regarding...
- There are both advantages and disadvantages in...
- Before deciding whether...
- There are many reasons for both sides of the issue about why...
- In discussing whether or not...
- It is often argued that...

Ways to introduce another viewpoint

- although
- on the other hand
- even though
- on the opposite side

- however
- on the other side
- in contrast to
- this differs from
- To argue...is insufficient (not enough), ...it is necessary to consider...
- What needs to be noted is that...
- More importantly (significantly) however, ...
- More to the points is the fact that...

#### Ways to sum up

- There are many reasons...
- I propose...
- Consequently it seems better to...
- It would seem that...
- Thus, in summary...

#### Ways to introduce recommendations

- My point of view is...
- After looking at both sides...
- Therefore, after examining all the arguments...
- It would appear reasonable to conclude then...
- My opinion is...
- My recommendation after looking at both sides...
- Although there are –many benefits  
–problems  
–a number of reasons, I think...

#### Ways to write about the significance of something

indicates	reveals	shows
shows evidence of	means	expresses
reflects	discloses	is rooted in

Note: Based on Callaghan and Knapp (1989)

### 3. Deconstructing language features (Key step 4)

#### Discussions Use Simple Present Tense

Activity: (Exercise 6 in the final instructional plans)

Whole class work together to find out the use of **simple present tense** in the article and then compare with the peers. The teacher provides students with the answer afterwards for students to check.

#### Online Shopping

With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping **is** prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people. However, now we **can pick** our desired items, **compare** the prices, and **enjoy** the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.

There **are** a series of merits for this kind of shopping. First of all, online shopping, to a large extent, **helps** us to save our valuable time, which **can be invested** into our work, leisure, and study. Moreover, when shopping on the e-mall, we **are exposed to** more options at the same time. This advantage **enables** us to select our desired product in a better price and quality. Further, shopping online **is** a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously **reduces** our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.

However, it also **gives** rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us. On the one hand, since it **is** impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers **may send** us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood. On the other hand, when we **fill** in our personal information and the credit card number online, these privacy **are** at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.

To conclude, every new-born phenomenon **can be** a double-bladed sword. I **suggest** that we **be** more cautious when we **shop** online. This **can be achieved** by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.

## Discussions Use Logical Conjunctions

### Activity: (Exercise 7 in the final instructional plans)

Whole class work together to find out the use of **Logical Conjunctions** in the article and then compare with their peers. The teacher provides students the answer afterwards for students to check.

### Online Shopping

With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent **and** pervasive among college students, white collars, **and** housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting **and** time-consuming task for numerous people. **However**, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, **and** enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable **and** trendy life styles for modern people.

There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping. **First of all**, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, **and** study. **Moreover**, **when** shopping on the e-mall, we are exposed to more options at the same time. This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality. **Further**, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living **because** it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, **and** money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection **and** preservation of the environment.

**However**, it **also** gives rise to a serious of problems annoying **and** upsetting us. **On the one hand**, since it is impossible for us to see **and** check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money **and** mood. **On the other hand**, **when** we fill in our personal information **and** the credit card number online, these privacy are at risk of being leaked **and** resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired **and** unexpected consequences.

To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword. I suggest that we be more cautious **when** we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, **and** consultation with our more experienced friends.

**Activities:** (Exercise 8 in the final instructional plans)

- 1) Students discuss the functions of different types of conjunctions in the article with peers and the teacher.
- 2) Students brainstorm more conjunctions.

**Conjunctions**

**Activity:** Based on the students' brainstorming, the teacher introduces the most frequently used conjunctions after students' brainstorming

**Temporal conjunctions**

first (second, third...)	finally	then	When
next	lastly	meanwhile	after a while
in the end	afterwards	at once	Before that

**Casual-conditional conjunctions**

so	hence	caused by	as a consequence of
then	otherwise	yet	Though
therefore	however	even though	as a result of
consequently	nevertheless	moreover	Accordingly

**Comparative conjunctions**

however	nevertheless	instead	in spite of this
differs from	on the other hand	whereas	on the contrary

**Additional conjunctions**

furthermore	additionally	moreover	Whereas
in addition	besides	while	not only

**Conjunctions which exemplify and show results**

for example	for instance	for one thing	Including
such as	accordingly	as a result	consequently
therefore	through	these include	as exemplified by

Note: Based on Callaghan and Knapp (1989, p. 49)

## Stage 2 Joint Construction of Text (Text 2) “Online Entertainment”

### (Exercise 9 in the final instructional plans)

This stage involves the teacher scribing student suggestions as they produce another model of the same genre on a blackboard, white board or OHP. Various activities are designed to promote students’ engagement in the task. In order to keep consistency with Stage 1, foci will also be on **Generic (Schematic) Structure and some Language Features** (use of simple present tense and use of logical conjunctive relations).

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Online Entertainment**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 现在网上娱乐已成为一种时尚 (Online entertainment has become a popularity)
2. 网上娱乐有很多好处，但也有不少问题 (Online entertainment has many merits and disadvantages)
3. 我的建议 (My suggestions)

### **Activity: Teacher participants discuss**

- 1) What sources can be used for students to gain information?
- 2) What activities can be employed to support students in this stage?
- 3) What languages are used by the teacher in the video clip “scaffolding the writing process” to scaffold students’ learning of writing?

The following system can be introduced to students for note-taking in this stage:

<b>Statement of issue</b> _____
<b>Arguments for:</b>
1. _____
Elaboration_____
2. _____
Elaboration_____
<b>Arguments against:</b>
1. _____
Elaboration_____
2. _____
Elaboration_____

### Stage 3 Independent Construction of Text (Text 3) “Recreational Activities”

Students individually construct a third text of the same genre, scaffolding removed (**Exercise 10 in the final instructional plans**).

Note: At the end of the writing classroom which is going to be observed after the workshops, the students will be asked to write a text within 30 minutes on a topic below.

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Recreational Activities**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below

(Note: It is the writing task of CET4 in June, 2008):

1. 娱乐活动多种多样 (There are various recreational activities)
2. 娱乐活动可能使人们受益，也可能有危害性 (Recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful)
3. 作为大学生我的看法 (Provide your opinions from the perspective of a university student.)

## Appendix 4 Handout for Students

### Stage 1: Modelling Stage

#### Online Shopping

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Online Shopping**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 现在网上购物已成为一种时尚 (Online shopping has become a popularity)
2. 网上购物有很多好处, 但也有不少问题 (Online shopping has many merits and disadvantages)
3. 我的建议 (My suggestions)

#### Exercise 1

1. Put the following sentences into proper order to finish the article.
2. Try to divide the article into proper paragraphs.

With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people...

- L. I suggest that we be more cautious when we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.
- M. On the other, when we fill in our personal information and the credit card number online, these privacy are at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.
- N. On the one hand, since it is impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood.
- O. To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword.
- P. Moreover, when shopping on the e-mall, we are exposed to more options at the same time. This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality.
- Q. However, it also gives rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us.
- R. Further, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.
- S. First of all, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, and study.



- T. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.
- U. There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping.
- V. However, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, and enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks.

### **Online Shopping**

With the Internet becoming an increasingly closer friend to our daily life, online shopping is prevalent and pervasive among college students, white collars, and housewives. In the past, shopping could be an exhausting and time-consuming task for numerous people. However, now we can pick our desired items, compare the prices, and enjoy the service, with a cup of coffee on the table, by several clicks. Apparently, online shopping has become one of the most fashionable and trendy life styles for modern people.

There are a series of merits for this kind of shopping. First of all, online shopping, to a large extent, helps us to save our valuable time, which can be invested into our work, leisure, and study. Moreover, when shopping on the e-mall, we are exposed to more options at the same time. This advantage enables us to select our desired product in a better price and quality. Further, shopping online is a more eco-friendly way of living because it tremendously reduces our use of traffic, plastic bags, and money, directly or indirectly contributing to the protection and preservation of the environment.

However, it also gives rise to a serious of problems annoying and upsetting us. On the one hand, since it is impossible for us to see and check the goods online, some immoral sellers may send us unsound and fake ones, resulting in bigger loss of our money and mood. On the other hand, when we fill in our personal information and the credit card number online, these privacy are at risk of being leaked and resold to more people, which would bring about some undesired and unexpected consequences.

To conclude, every new-born phenomenon can be a double-bladed sword. I suggest that we be more cautious when we shop online. This can be achieved by more careful comparison, selection of higher-rated seller on the e-mall, and consultation with our more experienced friends.

### **Exercise 2: Read and answer the following questions.**

1. What is the purpose of the article?
2. Who may write the article?
3. Who is it written for?
4. When do you think you may need to write or read a Discussion?

### **Exercise 3: Read the article and answer the following questions.**

1. How does the writer state the issue?
2. How is the Discussion divided up on the page? Why?

3. What does each paragraph tell us?
4. What is the topic sentence of 'the arguments for' and what are the points?
5. What is the topic sentence of 'the arguments against' and what are the points?
6. What are the recommendations?

**Exercise 4: Discuss and conclude the structure of the Discussion genre.**

1. In Discussions, how does the 1st paragraph start with?
2. What does the 2nd paragraph contain?
3. What does the 3rd paragraph contain?
4. What does the final paragraph contain?

**Exercise 5: Answer each question regarding important issues in Discussion genre.**

1. How to open/start the introducing paragraph in a Discussion Genre?
2. How to introduce another viewpoint (e.g. What kind of conjunctions can be applied)?
3. How to summarize the viewpoints from two different sides before you present your recommendation?
4. How to introduce your recommendation?
5. How to write about the significance of something?

**Exercise 6: Find out the use of simple present tense in the article and then compare with peers.**

**Exercise 7: Find out the use of Logical Conjunctions in the article and then compare with peers.**

**Exercise 8:**

1. Discuss the functions of different types of conjunctions in the article with peers and the teacher.
2. Brainstorm more conjunctions in each type of conjunction.

**Stage 2: Joint Construction of Text (Exercise 9)**

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Online Entertainment**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 现在网上娱乐已成为一种时尚 (Online entertainment has become a popular)

2. 网上娱乐有很多好处，但也有不少问题 (Online entertainment has many merits and disadvantages)
3. 我的建议 (My suggestions)

The following system can be used for note-taking in this stage

<p><b>Statement of issue</b> _____</p>
<p><b>Arguments for</b></p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>Elaboration _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>Elaboration _____</p>
<p><b>Arguments against:</b></p> <p>1. _____</p> <p>Elaboration _____</p> <p>2. _____</p> <p>Elaboration _____</p>

### Stage 3 Independent Construction of Text (Exercise 10)

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Recreational Activities**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 娱乐活动多种多样 (There are various recreational activities)
2. 娱乐活动可能使人们受益，也可能有危害性 (Recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful)
3. 作为大学生我的看法 (Provide your opinions from the perspective of a university student.)

Ways to open the introductory paragraph

- The current debate regarding...

- There are both advantages and disadvantages in...
- Before deciding whether...
- There are many reasons for both sides of the issue about why...
- In discussing whether or not...
- It is often argued that...

#### Ways to introduce another viewpoint

- although
- on the other hand
- even though
- on the opposite side
- however
- on the other side
- in contrast to
- this differs from
- To argue...is insufficient (not enough), ...it is necessary to consider...
- What needs to be noted is that...
- More importantly (significantly) however, ...
- More to the points is the fact that...

#### Ways to sum up

- There are many reasons...
- I recommend...
- I propose...
- Consequently it seems better to...
- It would seem that...
- Thus, in summary...

#### Ways to introduce recommendations

- My point of view is...
- After looking at both sides...
- Therefore, after examining all the arguments...
- It would appear reasonable to conclude then...
- My opinion is...
- My recommendation after looking at both sides...
- Although there are –many benefits
  - problems
  - a number of reasons, I think...

### Ways to write about the significance of something

indicates	reveals	shows
shows evidence of	means	expresses
reflects	discloses	is rooted in

### **The most frequently used conjunctions**

#### **Temporal conjunctions**

first (second, third...)	finally	then	when
next	lastly	meanwhile	after a while
in the end	afterwards	at once	Before that

#### **Casual-conditional conjunctions**

so	hence	caused by	as a consequence of
then	otherwise	yet	though
therefore	however	even though	as a result of
consequently	nevertheless	moreover	accordingly

#### **Comparative conjunctions**

however	nevertheless	instead	in spite of this
differs from	on the other hand	whereas	on the contrary

#### **Additional conjunctions**

furthermore	additionally	moreover	whereas
in addition	besides	while	not only

#### **Conjunctions which exemplify and show results**

for example	for instance	for one thing	Including
such as	accordingly	as a result	consequently
therefore	through	these include	as exemplified by

## Appendix 5 Interview Questions

### A. Pre-workshop Interview Questions for Teacher Participants

Time \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Participant's Name \_\_\_\_\_

Interview Questions	
The CECR, the CLT and the assessment	
1. In one or two sentences, how would you describe the main goal of the current College English Curriculum (CECR)?	能否用你自己的话描述一下目前大英课程大纲要求（以下简称“要求”）中的主要教学目标？
2. To meet the objective of “developing students’ ability to use English in a well-rounded way to communicate effectively” in CECR, what language skills are required in your view? • What is the most important one? • How important is the role of the writing competence?	根据‘培养学生的英语综合应用能力最终达到能有效进行交际’的大学英语教学目标，你认为其中包含哪些英语能力要求？ • 其中哪个语言能力是最重要的？ • 写作能力是怎样的角色？
3. Can you describe how writing is assessed in achievement tests such as mid-term tests or final tests? Why is that the way?	你能否描述一下写作在期中、期末这类考试中是怎样测试的？为什么采用那种方式呢？
Current classroom teaching of writing	
4. How much time does teaching of writing occupy in your College English classroom? Why?	在大学英语教学中，写作教学时间大概占用多少？为什么？
5. How is writing normally taught in your classroom? Can you give me some examples?	在你的大学英语课上，你一般是如何教写作的？能否举一些例子？
6. What text types do you normally teach? Why?	你一般教哪些体裁的写作？为什么？
7. What are the difficulties in teaching writing? And what makes it easier to teach writing?	在写作教学中，你觉得有哪些难点？哪些方面比较容易？
Students’ needs in learning of writing	
8. In your view, what are your students’ writing needs and difficulties?	你觉得学生写作方面有哪些需要，又有哪些难点？
9. What are their attitudes towards learning of writing?	学生对学习写作一般持怎样的态度？
Teachers’ educational background and professional experiences	
10. Can you tell me about your educational background and professional experiences? • What professional development	能不能简单介绍一些关于你教育以及培训背景（譬如说） • 你曾经参加过哪些和写作教学有关

<p>activities with regard to teaching writing have you been involved in?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recalling your training and professional experiences, what do you wish you had known more about regarding the teaching of writing?</li> </ul>	<p>的专业培训?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 回顾你所经历的专业培训和教学经验, 你觉得还有哪些跟写作教学相关的方面希望了解的?</li> </ul>
<p>11. Do you think our teachers' teaching of writing is informed by writing theories? If yes, what are the main ones? If not, why not?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How do you choose strategies when teaching writing? Where do you get them?</li> <li>• Do you feel that professional workshops would help teachers to better support students in developing their writing competence? If yes, what type of workshops?</li> </ul>	<p>你认为我们老师们在进行写作教学时是不是用一些写作理论作指导? 如果是的话, 你觉得哪些理论比较流行呢? 如果不是的话, 你觉得是什么原因呢?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 在教写作时, 你是如何选择教学方法的? 你是如何知道这些方法的?</li> <li>• 你觉得哪些种类的专业培训可以帮助于老师们更好地帮助学生达到《要求》中关于写作的目标?</li> </ul>

## B. Post-workshop Interview Questions for Teacher Participants

Time \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_ Participant's Name \_\_\_\_\_

Interview Questions	
1. Did you enjoy the way of teaching the lesson? What worked well for you? Did you encounter any difficulties? What is your opinion of the lesson plan? e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The choice and sequence of the activities</li> <li>• Classroom organization</li> <li>• The way of interacting with the students (we called it scaffolding – remember?)</li> <li>• The choice of resources used in class</li> </ul>	你是否喜欢这节课上的教学方法？哪些方面你觉得效果较好？你是否也遇到一些疑难？你如何评价这个教学计划？比如说 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 课堂活动、步骤的选择</li> <li>• 课堂的组织</li> <li>• 学生小组活动的方式</li> <li>• 和学生互动的方式（我们称之为 scaffolding 的，记得吗？）</li> <li>• 教学所需要的辅助材料的选择</li> </ul>
1. What do you think about the use of model text in introducing a target genre? What do you think your students have learned from the model?	在这次课上，你用范文形式向学生介绍了所要学习的写作体裁。能否谈谈使用这种方法的体会？你觉得学生从范文介绍过程中学到了什么？
2. What do you think of arranging the students in groups to write the text together? (we called it the stage of Joint Construction of a Text)	你对于安排学生一起写文章的过程是怎样的体会（我们称之为合作写作）？
3. How did you support your students during various times of the lesson? How did you interact with them? Were there any differences in this lesson to how you did it before? How do you feel about the outcomes of ... (observed activities/strategies)?	在不同的课堂时间段中，你是如何帮助学生的？你是如何和他们互动的？给学生提供相应的帮助的？和之前的课相比，这堂课上你是否采用了一些不一样的方法呢？对于像（所观察到的活动/方法），你对于他们的结果感觉如何？
4. What do you think of the achievement of the goal of the lesson? Do you think your students have made some improvement in certain aspects you taught such as 'text structure' and some 'language features'? Why?/Why not?	你自己对这整堂课的效果怎么评价？你是否觉得在这堂课上学生有所提高，特别是因为你对一些特定方面的教学，比如说“文章结构”，“语言使用特征”等。为什么你这么认为？
5. What are the advantages and limitations of this genre pedagogy in your view?	你觉得这种体裁法的优点和局限性是什么？
6. In general, do you think this pedagogy is practical in assisting Chinese EFL teachers to help their students develop their writing competence? Why/Why not?	总的来说，你觉得采用这种体裁教学法是否有助于我们中国的大学英语老师们帮助他们的学生提高写作交际能力？为什么/为什么不？
7. If you are to teach such a lesson again what adjustments need to be made? Are you going to add something or take out, or change a sequence? Or re-arrange?	如果你再上这样一堂课的话你认为需要作哪些调整？你会怎加或者删除一些呢，还是改变一下步骤？或者重新组织一下？有帮助的话，是否需要作一些调整，该如何调整？



## Appendix 6 Consent Form for the Teachers

University of Wollongong



### CONSENT FORM

Tel: (61) 449612877

Email: [lms49@uowmail.edu.au](mailto:lms49@uowmail.edu.au)

Contact number for the Ethics

Officer (61-02) 42214457

#### **Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the potential of SFL genre-based pedagogy for teaching College English writing: A case study at a university in China**

A study conducted by Leimin Shi, July 2010-June 2013

I, \_\_\_\_\_ have been given information and understand about the research project. I give my consent to participate in this project, knowing that the data collected may be used later for a doctoral degree thesis, publications or conference presentations, provided that my name is not used.

As what is mentioned in the information sheet, I do agree to participate in the following activities:

- ☐ To be interviewed twice, each of which will last about 30 minutes.
- ☐ To be audio-taped during in the interviews.
- ☐ To be observed twice in class teaching and when it is during the training stage.
- ☐ To be video-recorded in the observations.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and may withdraw my consent at any time. My withdrawal of consent will not affect my relationship with the Department of the Foreign Language Department.

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

(Block letters)

**Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix 7 Consent Form for the Students

University of Wollongong



### CONSENT FORM FOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Tel: (61) 449612877

Email: [lms49@uowmail.edu.au](mailto:lms49@uowmail.edu.au)

Contact number for the Ethics

Officer (61-02) 42214457

#### **Chinese EFL teachers' cognition about the potential of SFL genre-based pedagogy for teaching College English writing: A case study at a university in China**

A study conducted by Leimin Shi, July 2010-June 2013

I, \_\_\_\_\_ have been given information and understand about the research project. I give my consent to participate in this project, knowing that the data collected may be used later for a doctoral degree thesis, publications or conference presentations, provided that my name is not used.

As what is mentioned in the information sheet, I do agree to participate in the following activities:

- ☐ To be observed and video-recorded twice in College English class.
- ☐ Written texts in those two observed classes will be collected for textual analysis purpose.

I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and may withdraw my consent at any time. I understand that there are no potential risks or burdens associated with this study.

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_

(Block letters)

**Signature:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

## College English Curriculum Requirements

With a view to keeping up with the new developments of higher education in China, deepening teaching reform, improving teaching quality, and meeting the needs of the country and society for qualified personnel in the new era, *College English Curriculum Requirements* (Requirements hereafter) has been drawn up to provide colleges and universities with the guidelines for English instruction to non-English major students.

Because institutions of higher learning differ from each other in terms of teaching resources, students' level of English upon entering college, and the social demands they face, colleges and universities should formulate, in accordance with the *Requirements* and in the light of their specific circumstances, a scientific, systematic and individualized College English syllabus to guide their own College English teaching.

### I. Character and Objectives of College English

College English, an integral part of higher learning, is a required basic course for undergraduate students. Under the

guidance of theories of foreign language teaching, College English has as its main components knowledge and practical skills of the English language, learning strategies and intercultural communication. It is a systematic whole, incorporating different teaching models and approaches.

The objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively, and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently and improve their general cultural awareness so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges.

### II. Teaching Requirements

As China is a large country with conditions that vary from region to region and from college to college, the teaching of College English should follow the principle of providing different guidance for different groups of students and instructing them in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific needs of individualized teaching.

The requirements for undergraduate College English teaching are set at three levels, i. e., basic requirements, intermediate requirements, and advanced requirements. Non-English majors are required to attain to one of the three levels of requirements after studying and practicing English at school. The basic requirements are the minimum level that all non-English majors have to reach before graduation. Intermediate

Note: The current CECR released by Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China in 2007.

## Appendix 8 Classroom Observation Notes

Class\_\_\_\_\_ Teacher\_\_\_\_\_ Date\_\_\_\_\_ Topic\_\_\_\_\_

<b>Content</b>	What genre is taught?			
	Objectives			
	Focus aspects in teaching the genre			
<b>Organization</b>	How is the teaching process organized?			
<b>Activities</b>	What activities are used?			
Time:	Description of activity	Terminology used	Resources	Photo

## Appendix 9 Syllabus for College English IV in the Research Setting

### 一、课程基本信息 [Basic information of the course]

课程名称：大学英语

英文名称：College English

课程编号：200010431

课程类别：公共基础课

预修课程：应具备大学英语二级的基础，大学英语二级考试及格。

开设部门：外语学院

适用专业：各个专业（英语专业除外）

学 分：4

总 课 时：68 其中理论课时：52，实践课时：16

### 二、课程性质、目的 [The characteristics and the purpose of the course]

大学英语教学是高等教育的一个有机组成部分，大学英语课程是大学生一门必修的基础课程。大学英语教学是以英语语言知识与应用技能、学习策略和跨文化交际为主要内容，以外语教学理论为指导，并集多种教学模式和教学手段为一体的教学体系。本课程目的是：培养学生具有较强的阅读能力和实用有效的听、说、写、译能力，使他们能用英语交流信息。大学英语教学应帮助学生打下扎实的语言基础，掌握良好的语言学习方法，具有较强的英语应用能力和相应的综合文化素养，以适应社会发展和经济建设的需要。

College English teaching is one of the fundamental components of the tertiary education. It is a compulsory foundation course for all college students. College English teaching is an integrated teaching system consisting of the main content (which includes English language knowledge, application skills, learning strategy and cross-cultural communication); foreign language teaching theory as a guide; and a variety of teaching modes and teaching means. The purpose of this course is to cultivate students' strong reading ability and their abilities of listening, speaking, writing and translation for effective communication. Aiming to meet the social and economic development needs, College English teaching should help students establish a solid language foundation, master good language learning method, and have strong ability to apply English as well as the corresponding comprehensive cultural understanding. [Translated by the researcher]

三、教学内容、基本要求、课时分配[Teaching content, requirements and time assignment]

章 节	教 学 内 容 [Teaching content]	课时数分配 [Time assignment]		
		总 课 时 数	理 论 课 时	实 验 课 时
<b>Unit 1</b>	<b>Changes in the Way We Live</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 1 Let's Go Somewhere</b> <b>Unit 2 Coincidence</b>			
<b>Unit 2</b>	<b>Civil-Rights Heroes</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 3 Courage</b> <b>Unit 4 Marriage</b>			
<b>Unit 3</b>	<b>Security</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			

Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 5 Youth</b> <b>Unit 6 Stress</b>			
<b>Unit 4</b>	<b>Imagination and Creativity</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 7 The Business World</b> <b>Unit 8 The Environment</b>			
<b>Review</b>	<b>Questions &amp; Answers</b>	2	2	
<b>Unit 5</b>	<b>Giving Thanks</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 9 The Single Currency</b> <b>Unit 10 The cinema</b>			
<b>Unit 6</b>	<b>The Human Touch</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 11 Left-handedness</b> <b>Unit 12 Biodiversity</b>			

<b>Unit 7</b>	<b>Making a Living</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Unit 13 Inventions</b> <b>Unit 14 Women</b>			
<b>Unit 8</b>	<b>Cloning</b>	8	6	2
Task A	Before Reading & Global Reading			
Task B	Detailed Reading			
Task C	After Reading & Fast Reading			
Task D	Check on Extensive Reading			
Task E	<b>Listening and Speaking</b> <b>Test 1&amp; 2</b>			
Review	<b>Questions &amp; Answers</b>	2	2	
合计		68	52	16

#### 四、课程考核 [Assessment information]

1、考核方式：考试。

2、考试内容：1) 听力理解、2) 阅读理解、3) 词汇语法、4) 完型填空、  
5) 翻译或写作

3、成绩评定：平时成绩占 30%（期中考试、阶段测验、出勤及课堂表现等），期末考试占 70%

#### 五、教材与参考文献资料[Referencing]



## Appendix 10 A Sample of Pre-workshop Teaching Plan

(by Kathy)

### China's Education Performance

#### *Some Good Topic Sentences*

- ✚ First, Chinese students have better basic skills for they are so hard-working that they spend a lot of time on study.  
Second, faced up to the severe competition, they have to their utmost to improve themselves.
- ✚ China has a large population. Those who live in china are more likely to have competitive spirit and sense.  
Students in China learn deeper than those in advanced country at the same age.  
The government has paid much attention to education due to the rapid economic growth.
- ✚ Firstly, one of the most important causes of this phenomenon is the strict Chinese education system.  
Secondly, parents in China pay much attention to the education of children.  
Finally, fierce competitions nowadays force the students to work harder.
- ✚ Firstly, people want to change their fate by acquiring more knowledge.  
Secondly, parents expect their children to have a brighter future.  
Thirdly, the well-developed society is in bad need of more qualified persons.

#### *Outline in need of improvement*

- ✚ As the educational technology has been improved, the way of education has been accessible to students.  
Chinese education has a long history to train the capacity of reflection.
- ✚ In China, there is examination-oriented education, but...  
Most parents and teachers pay more attention to make students' marks higher, but not to improve their personal study ability.  
Chinese students usually acquire knowledge from books, but in advanced countries, they learn in practice.
- ✚ With the government's assist, the hardware of education are becoming various, which stimulates students' appetite to learn.

And the thought that if a person is good at study, then he must be a good man, otherwise he would be abandoned.

- ✚ The culture difference is also an important factor.  
The food we eat has more nutrition.  
China has a good tradition in education.  
Under the leadership of the party, China's education is very competitive.  
Firstly, teaching method is one of the reasons.  
Secondly, education mode plays an important role.  
Thirdly, culture difference is also an important factor.

- ✚ Chinese education has always tried its best to improve itself.  
The government has been paying more attention to education and has enough money to pay for it with the development of China.

## Appendix 11 CET4 Writing Tasks since June 2006<sup>19</sup>

### 2006 年 6 月 Students Selecting Their Lecturers

**Direction:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minute to write a short essay on the topic of **students selecting their lectures**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given bellow:

1. 有些大学允许学生自由选择某些课程的任课教师
2. 学生选择教师时所考虑的主要因素
3. 学生自选任课教师的益处和可能产生的问题

### 2006 年 12 月 Spring Festival Gala on CCTV

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 许多人喜欢在除夕夜看春节晚会
2. 但有些人提出取消春节晚会
3. 我的看法

### 2007 年 6 月 An Announcement to Welcome to Join to a Club

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

欢迎辞, 欢迎加入俱乐部。标题: Welcome to our club  
书写提纲:

1. 表达你的欢迎;
2. 对你们俱乐部作一个简要介绍。

### 2007 年 12 月 What Electives to Choose

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 各大学为学生开设了多种多样的选修课
2. 学生出于各种原因选择不同的选修课
3. 以我为例.....

### 2008 年 6 月 Recreational Activities

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 娱乐活动多种多样,
2. 娱乐可能使人们受益, 也可能有危害性,
3. 作为大学生, 我的看法。

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<sup>19</sup> This appendix illustrates all CET4 writing tasks since the recent significant CET reform occurred in June 2006. The highlighted parts in blue were the topics applied for the designs of the instructional plans in the current study.

**2008 年 12 月 Limiting the Use of Disposable Plastic Bag**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

怎样改善学生的心理健康

1. 一次性塑料袋的使用
2. 使用一次性塑料袋带来的问题
3. 限制一次性塑料袋的意义

**2009 年 6 月 Free Admission to Museums**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 越来越多的博物馆免费对外开放的目的是什么?
2. 也会带来一些问题
3. 你的看法?

**2009 年 12 月 Create A Green Campus**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 建设绿色校园十分重要
2. 绿色校园不仅指绿色环境
3. 为了建设绿色校园我们应该.....

**2010 年 6 月 Due Attention Should Be Given To Spelling**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 如今不少学生在英语（论坛）学习中不重视拼写，
2. 出现这种现象的原因是
3. 为了改变这种状况，我认为

**2010 年 12 月 How Should Parents Help Students to Be**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 家长是否应该帮助孩子走向独立
2. 有些家长替孩子包揽一切
3. 为了帮孩子自立，家长应该

**2011 年 6 月 Online Shopping**

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 现在网上购物已成为一种时尚
2. 网上购物有很多好处，但也有不少问题
3. 我的建议

### 2011 年 12 月 Nothing Succeeds Without a Strong Will

**Direction:** You're allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay entitled **Nothing Succeeds Without a Strong Will** by commenting on the humorous saying, "Quitting smoking is the easiest thing in the world. I've done it hundreds of time." You'd write at least 120 words but no more than 180 words.

### 2012 年 6 月 Online Excessive Packaging

**Directions:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 目前许多商品存在过度包装的现象
2. 出现这一现象的原因
3. 我对这一现象的看法和建议

### 2012 年 12 月 A Letter Applying for A Bank Loan

**Direction:** Same as Direction in June, 2006

1. 你的基本情况
2. 你申请贷款的原因、数额及用途
3. 你如何保证专款专用以及你的还款打算

### 2013 年 6 月 20

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay. You should **start your essay with a brief description of the picture** and **then express your views** of the importance of doing small things before undertaking big. You should write at least 120 words but no more than 180 words.

### 2013 年 12 月

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a composition on the picture below. You should start your essay with a brief account of the impact of

- (topic 1) the Internet on the way people communicate and then explain whether electronic communication can replace face-to-face contact
- (topic 2) the increasing use of mobile phone in people's life and then explain the consequence of overusing it
- (topic 3) the Internet on learning and then explain why education doesn't simply mean learning to obtain information

You should write at least 120 words but no more than 180 words.

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<sup>20</sup>Three topics have been designed for the CET4 writing tasks since June, 2013 so that candidates allocated in the same classroom could be assigned to three different topics respectively. However, the target genre set for the tasks were the same and the topics were similar to great extent.

**2014 年 6 月**

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the following topic. You should write at least 120 words but no more than 180 words. Suppose a foreign friend of yours is coming to visit your **hometown/campus/China**, what is the most interesting place you would like to take him/her to see and why?

**2014 年 12 月**

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay about **a course that has impressed you most in college/a classmate of yours who has influenced you most in college/a campus activity that has benefited you most**. You should state the reasons and write at least 120 words but no more than 180 words.

## Appendix 12 Marking Criteria and Rating Examples for CET Writing Tasks<sup>21</sup>

### 1. 作文评分原则 (Marking criteria)

- CET-4 作文题采用总体评分 (Global Scoring) 方法。阅卷人员就总的印象给出奖励分(Reward Scores), 而不是按语言点的错误数目扣分。
- 从内容和语言两个方面对作文进行综合评判。内容和语言是一个统一体, 作文应表达题目所规定的内容, 而内容要通过语言来表达。要考虑作文是否切题, 是否充分表达思想, 也要考虑是否用英语清楚而确切地表达思想, 也就是要考虑语言上的错误是否造成理解上的障碍。
- 避免趋中倾向。该给高分的给高分, 包括满分; 该给低分的给低分, 包括零分, 一名阅卷人员在所阅的全部作文卷中不应只给中间的几种分数。

### 2. 作文评分标准 (Marking principles)

- 本题满分为 15 分。
- 阅卷标准共分五等: 2 分、5 分、8 分、11 分及 14 分。各有标准样卷一至二份。
- 阅卷人员根据阅卷标准, 对照样卷评分, 若认为与某一分数(如 8 分)相似, 即定为该分数(即 8 分); 若认为稍优或稍劣于该分数, 即可加一分(即 9 分)或减一分(即 7 分), 但不得加或减半分。
- 评分标准如下(Description of marking levels):
  - 14 分——切题。表达思想清楚, 文字通顺, 连贯性好。基本上无语言错误, 仅有个别小错误。
  - 11 分——切题。表达思想清楚, 文字连贯, 但有少量语言错误。
  - 8 分——基本切题。有些地方表达思想不够清楚, 文字勉强连贯; 语言错误相当多, 其中有一些是严重错误。
  - 5 分——基本切题。表达思想不清楚, 连贯性差。有较多的严重语言错误。
  - 2 分——条理不清, 思路紊乱, 语言支离破碎或在部分句子均有错误, 且多数为严重错误。

Points	Description
14	Follow the topic with clear ideas expression, fluent text, good coherence, and few minor language errors
11	Follow the topic with clear ideas expression, fluent text, good coherence, but with a few language errors
8	Basically follow the topic but with some ideas not clearly expressed, barely coherent text and quite a few language mistakes including some serious ones.
5	Basically follow the topic but the ideas are not clearly expressed; lack of coherence; quite a few serious language mistakes.
2	No clear structure or ideas; fragmented language; Mistakes appear in most of the sentences and the most are serious ones.

<sup>21</sup> All examiners of the writing task in CETs are trained focusing on the three aspects as outlined in this appendix. Rating examples of five levels within 15 full score are provided to them as reference. Retrieved from <http://wenku.baidu.com/view/f32328280066f5335b812106.html>

[注]:

- 白卷, 作文与题目毫不相关, 或只有几个孤立的词而无法表达思想, 则给 0 分;
- 如题目中给出主题句、起始句、结束句, 均不得计人所写字数;
- 只写一段者: 0~4 分; 只写两段者: 0~9 分(指规定三段式的作文)

经原国家教委批准, 四、六级考试已从 1997 年 6 月份起采用“作文最低”制计算成绩, 其中足见国家对提高大学英语写作能力的重视程度。按规定, 考生作文若为 0 分, 无论其总分是否高于 60 分, 均作不及格处理; 若其作文分高于 0 分, 低于 6 分, 报成绩时, 需从总分中减去 6 分, 再加上实得作文分。也就是说, 要从总分中减去实得作文分与 6 分之间的差额部分。

### 3. 评分实例 (Rating examples for the writing task in CETs)

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed thirty minutes to write a composition on the topic **Man Is to Survive**. You should write at least 150 words, and base your composition on the outline given in Chinese below:

#### Man Is to Survive

Outline:

1. 人类面临的问题(如能源、疾病、污染、人口等)
2. 悲观的看法(如人类将无法生存)
3. 人类的智慧出路

样卷一 得分: 2 分 [Rating example One, 2 points]

【评语】该篇文章条理不清, 思想紊乱, 语言支离破碎, 无法理解, 几乎没有正确的句子。

Today, man has to be faced to several programs, for instance illness population and pollution. These programs are seriously and they have effected our living. For example, in china, there are a lot of people. Although the industry and agriculture has increased, the standing of people's living increased slowly and slowly.

So some people think the man can's live in the earth in the future, because of these programs. But most people think we can be survived by ourselves. At first man must united and use our intelligent.

And now, some country and most people have recognize the program, and begin to resolve it. So, we could believe that the man can live happiness in the future.

样卷二 得分: 5 分 [Rating example Two, 5 points]

【评语】该篇文章基本切题, 但思想表达不清楚, 连贯性差, 有很多严重的语言错误。

Man has been living in the world for millions of years. It brings brilliant civilization to the earth, but it has also bought a lot of problems, such as the energy criticizes, pollution, diseases and the exploring population. The problems are now threaten man's survive.

There are some people who think that man will never conquer those problems. They have made sadly conclusion that man will die out in future.

But through most of the people's opinion, man will survive in the earth. From it birth man has been always facing to various of problems or criticisms and it usually win it over. Man has intellectual that no other animals can compare with. And Man have courage and strength. So they become the owners of earth today. Man will certainly conquer the problems we now face. Once it realize the problems, it will solve it by their intellectual. They will produce new energy to solve energy criticize, find new way to cure disease; and control pollution and population expansion in different ways. Thus, man will certainly die out in the world.



样卷三 得分：8分 [Rating example Three, 8 points]

【评语】该篇文章基本切题，有些地方表达不清。文字勉强连贯，但语言错误较多，其中有一些为严重错误。

Nowadays people are facing some serious problems in the world, such as materials-short, fatal diseases, pollution and overlarge population. Some of these problems are contribute to people's own faults, others are the results of industrial development which leads to a better life of persons.

Conflicted with more and more of these problems and their dizarsts, some people are so worried that they think of a tragic end of the world. They consider that man can't survive on the earth after some eras. For there will be so many difficulties that people find no practical ways to tackle with. At last man will kill himself instead of grasping more survival skills.

Is it the sole answer people get? Of course not. Man is of the most intelligent animal species or the earth. Since they have made so many deeds to live with, they also can finds better ways to survive. Only if they can pay more attention to those problems, they will get through the difficulties and find the best living way.

样卷四 得分：11分 [Rating example Four, 11 points]

【评语】该篇文章切题，表达清晰，文字较连贯，但有少量语言错误。

Man has lived in this world for thousands of years. They fight against the nature from time to time and they survive. Today, they face up many problems such as diseases, pollution and the rapidly increasing population etc. They also find that the energy is in shortage because the people in the world use it wastefully. As we know, people can't live without water, air and the sun. But now the large amount of water and the air has been polluted, which brings about various questions troubling man's life.

Some people consider that we can't survive in the earth. They think that if we don't stop polluting our air, water, we can hardly live. Those people are too sad.

Man is wisdom. Because they realize that the diseases, the lack of energy, the pollution are resulted from their own doing, however, if they immediately bring about effective solutions to prevent those problems, they can come out of the crisis. In the end, they are to survive.

样卷五 得分：14分 [Rating example Five, 14 points]

【评语】该篇文章切题，思想表达清楚，文章结构条理清晰，行文连贯，符合逻辑。

Man is faced with more and more problems which threaten man's existence on Earth. The resources will soon be exhausted. Many diseases can't be cured. And the problems of pollution and population are also getting worse according to some studies.

Therefore, some people wonder whether man can live in the future. We are running out of resources. We are suffering from those incurable diseases. Due to the pollution, we will not have pure water and fresh air which are necessary to our lives. The population is a big problem, too. The globe is getting overcrowded. The worst prediction of some people is that man will die out in the future.

They are exaggerating of course. But the situation is grave. We must do our best to make the world better for us to survive. We can find new things, such as solar energy to replace the energy sources being used today. With the help of science, we can also find new methods to protect people's health. And new ways can be carried out to prevent the pollution and control the population.

In a word, we must not be afraid of the problems and be anxious all the time. It's our turn to act actively to make the situation better to survive.

### Appendix 13 MM5's Initial Pre-workshop Writing Sample

#### Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?

As English is the most important language in the world, more and more people become to learn English. Recently there is a heated argue about whether spoken English test is necessary or not.

Many people argue that spoken English test is necessary. The reason is spoken English not only encourages us to learn English, but also let us know our English level.

However, there are some opposite ideas. They argue that spoken English test will let us have a pressure which make us hate to learn English.

In my opinion, spoken English test is necessary. It is useful to improve our English level. The most important thing is that spoken English test can stimulate our interest of learning English.

Therefore, spoken English test is necessary today.

## Appendix 14 MM5's Initial Post-workshop Writing Sample

**Directions:** For this part, you are allowed 30 minutes to write a short essay on the topic of **Recreational Activities**. You should write at least 120 words following the outline given below:

1. 娱乐活动多种多样 (There are various recreational activities)
2. 娱乐活动可能使人们受益, 也可能有危害性 (Recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful)
3. 作为大学生我的看法 (Provide your opinions from the perspective of a university student.)

With the development of people's living standard, nowadays people have more and more recreational activities to enjoy themselves, such as singing, dancing, playing games, and so on. However, Recreational activities may bring people benefits and they also may be harmful.

Recreational activities may make people happy and relax their body. Moreover, recreational activities will help to develop our economic.

However, recreational activities will waste too much time and people won't want to work and study. What's more, recreational activities will make people sleep little, which is harmful to their body.

I suggest that recreational activities are necessary. But people should not spend too much time on it, or it will make an bad influence on them.



## Appendix 15 Comparison of Results between CH4's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 There are different opinions among people as to the test.</p> <p>2 Many people suggest that it is necessary to take a test of spoken English.</p> <p>3 Firstly, English is a language so that we should do well in speaking as well as listening and writing.</p> <p>4 Secondly, with the development of economy, the number of foreigners who are living in our country is growing up.</p> <p>5 And we have much business with other countries.</p> <p>6 Thirdly, taking a test of spoken English can improve students' English.</p> <p>7 But others hold the different opinion.</p> <p>8 They think that the test incread the stress of student.</p> <p>9 There are so many tests that student can't have a good rest and can't do well in them.</p> <p>10 As far as I'm concerned, a test of spoken English is necessary.</p> <p>11 English is playing an important role in our future work.</p> <p>12 A Test of spoken English can make us studying English more effective.</p>	<p>Statement of issue ISSUE Preview</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT FOR Elaboration</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT AGAINST Elaboration</p> <p>Summary RECOMMENDATION Conclusion</p>	<p>1 With the development of modern society, there are various recreational activities in our daily life.</p> <p>2 Young people love to watch movies in the cinema or sing songs in KTV, while old people often get together to play chess or dance.</p> <p>3 Recreational activities may bring people benefits.</p> <p>4 First of all, people can get relaxed and feel happy after they join those activities.</p> <p>Modern people are always busy with their work and study, so they can adjust themselves and have a lot of fun in this way.</p> <p>5 What's more, it is a good way to get familiar with others and make new friends in recreational activities.</p> <p>6 However, recreational activities also may be harmful.</p> <p>7 On the one hand, one may get addicted to those activities and even forget his work.</p> <p>8 On the other hand, recreational activities may cost a lot of time and money.</p> <p>9 People just want to have entertainments and don't work or study hard would bring about some bad and unexpected results.</p> <p>10 As a university student, I suggest that we should pay more attention to our study.</p> <p>11 Then we can choose some recreational activities which are suitable to us and bring us some advantages.</p>

## Appendix 16 Comparison of Results between CM5's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 A test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the College English Test (CET).</p> <p>2 Many people think it necessary to hold a test of spoken English.</p> <p>3 There are many reasons:</p> <p>4 Firstly, many college students who has <u>across</u> the English test can't talk to foreigners.</p> <p>5 Secondly, the spoken English is more important in our reality life.】</p> <p>6 Thirdly, if you want to learn English better than others, you must speak English.</p> <p>7 But many people have different ideas.</p> <p>8 They don't think it necessary to hold a test of spoken English.</p> <p>9 It takes much time to hold a test of spoken English.</p> <p>10 Different people have their different ways.</p> <p>11 It's not useful for their future job.</p> <p>12 In my opinion, a test of spoken English is necessary.</p> <p>13 In the work, good spoken English make us understand the foreigners better.</p> <p>14 Also, you can communicate with most people of the world <u>if</u> you can speak English.</p> <p>15 A test of spoken English can make you speak English <u>harderly</u>.</p>	<p>Statement of issue <b>ISSUE</b> Preview</p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT FOR</b> Elaboration</p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT AGAINST</b> Elaboration</p> <p><b>RECOMMENDATION</b> Conclusion</p>	<p>1 The increasing of technology tells us we will have a <u>colourful</u> life with more <u>and</u> more various recreational activities.</p> <p>2 Different people have different ideas about the various recreational activities.</p> <p>3 Let's look at both sides of the various recreational activities.</p> <p>4 There are a series of merits for various recreational activities.</p> <p>5 First of all, recreational activities can enlarger the knowledge.</p> <p>6 Every activity has its own story <u>and</u> culture.</p> <p>7 Moreover, recreational activities can make better friendship.</p> <p>8 When we take activities we are a big family.</p> <p>9 In the end, recreational activities can relax us when we are very tired.</p> <p>10 However, recreational activities <u>also</u> may be harmful.</p> <p>11 Many children may be <u>addicted</u> to the recreational activities.</p> <p>12 They only love activities in their lives.</p> <p>13 Besides, the recreational activities may be cost more money.</p> <p>14 The one who have no money, he will do <u>may</u> thing <u>if</u> he wants to make money in short time.</p> <p>15 I think it's terrible.</p> <p>16 My point of view is proper activities will be good for us.</p> <p>17 I perform my own life.</p> <p>18 As a university student, we will step into society.</p> <p>19 Before that, we should play <u>ourselves</u> and study <u>ourselves</u>.</p> <p>20 The proper activities will make our life <u>colourful</u> and study better.</p> <p>21 Also we can make more friends from the activities.</p>

## Appendix 17 Comparison of Results between KM1's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 A test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the College English (CET).</p> <p>2 Different people hold the different ideas.</p> <p>3 Many people think it is necessary to hold a spoken English test <b>because</b> they think it can test the level of students more thoroughly.</p> <p>4 One of the most important reason we learn English is contact in others.</p> <p>5 <b>So</b> by the spoken English test, can improve people's spoken ability <b>and</b> make them have a better understand of English.</p> <p>6 In the tradition education in China, students were taught a lot of vocabulary, grammar and so on, <b>but</b> what they learned is been seen as "Nospoken English" they can't speak, <b>so</b> it's necessary to hold.</p>	<p>Statement of issue</p> <p>Preview</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT FOR Elaboration</p>	<p>1 There are various recreational activities in our daily life such as watching TV, surfing the Internet, traveling, play games and so on.</p> <p>2 Through these activities, we have fun and we <b>also</b> get a lot disadvantages from it.</p> <p>3 Recreational activities may make us relax ourselves, through these activities, we can get away from the daily works, which annoying us <u>everyday</u>.</p> <p>4 <b>On the other hand</b>, we can make friends, if we travelling around, in the way we may meet many people, and maybe someone also can change your life.</p> <p>5 <b>Moreover</b>, recreational activities can make us know a lot, by watching TV, we can know what has happened in the life, it can make us more <u>knowledge</u>.</p>
<p>7 <b>But</b> there are <b>also</b> some people who have different opinions, they think in many rural area, teachers are not well <u>educated</u>, they usually can't speak well, <b>so</b> it's not equally for students to have an exam.</p>	<p>Points of ARGUMENT AGAINST Elaboration</p>	<p>6 <b>However</b>, recreational activities <b>also</b> have many disadvantages.</p> <p>7 Many teenagers <u>additted</u> to the Internet, it make them don't want to go to school.</p> <p>8 Many of them can't do well in their learning.</p> <p>9 There are <b>also</b> many illegal activities, people spent too much on it so that they make their home broke up.</p> <p>10 In the end, they got nothing from it.</p>
<p>8 In my opinion, spoken English test is a important of English test <b>because</b> it can make students truly make listen, speak, read, write the English in learning, it can practice them a lot.</p> <p>9 <b>On the other hand</b>, they can have a better understand toward English, they can <b>also</b> use more easily in the following time.</p>	<p>Summary</p> <p>RECOMMEN-DATION</p> <p>Conclusion</p>	<p>11 <b>So</b> conclude of it, recreational activities is a <u>side ways</u> word, we should properly use it so that it can benefit us.</p> <p>12 <b>And</b> we should get rid of the unhealthy activities, <b>and</b> make best use of it.</p>



## Appendix 18 Comparison of Results between KH2's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 A test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the College English Test (CET), <b>but</b> holding a test of spoken English is necessary?</p> <p>2 People have different views.</p>	<p>Statement of issue <b>ISSUE</b> Preview</p>	<p>1 There are various recreational activities nowadays, people are more interested in take part in various activities, activities make people more relax, more happy.</p> <p>2 <b>But</b> it <b>also</b> brings some accidents.</p> <p>3 There are different view about taking part in activities.</p>
<p>3 People vary from one another about is it necessary to holding a test of English.</p> <p>4 <b>For one thing</b>, people think by holding a spoken English test, they can get a spoken English certificate which act as a proof that you are skilled in spoken English.</p> <p>5 <u>With this spoken English certificates</u>, they will have more chances in job marketing.</p> <p>6 Most importantly, by working for spoken for English test, they can enrich their studies and make progress.</p> <p>7 <b>For another thing</b>, holding a spoken English test is just a wasting of time.</p>	<p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT FOR</b> Elaboration</p>	<p>4 <b>One hand</b>, activities can make people <u>more healthy</u>.</p> <p>5 Some people are too busy to exercise, so activities can keep them exercising.</p> <p>6 <b>On the other hand</b>, activities make people closer, by taking part in <u>activities</u>, we can communicate with more people, make more friends.</p>
<p>8 <b>First</b>, a spoken English certificate can't act as a proof that he or she is skilled in spoken English.</p> <p>9 <b>Second</b>, if all people are aimed at passing the spoken English test, their spoken English won't be better.</p>	<p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT AGAINST</b> Elaboration</p>	<p>7 Every coin has two sides.</p> <p>8 Taking part in more activities can be <u>harmful</u>, it can led to disordered life style, lack of sleep and so on.</p> <p>9 <b>Furthermore</b>, activities can lead more accidents.</p>
<p>10 Personally, I think it isn't necessary to hold a spoken English test.</p> <p>11 I believe that most people have realized that spoken English is <b>so</b> important, they are making for it <u>activity</u>, so a test isn't necessary.</p>	<p><b>RECOMMENDATION</b> Conclusion</p>	<p>10 People are busy with <u>activities</u>, it can lead to traffic accidents <b>or</b> other accidents.</p> <p>11 Personally, I think that activities are good for us <b>but</b> we should take part in reasonable activities in terms of time.</p>

## Appendix 19 Comparison of Results between KL4's Texts

<b>Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?</b>		<b>Recreational Activities</b>
<p>1 A test of spoken English will be included as an optional component of the College English Test (CET).</p> <p>2 Many people think it is necessary to hold a spoken English test <b>because</b> our learning English is that we can talk English with foreigner at last.</p> <p>3 <b>So</b> the final destination of learning English is spoken English.</p> <p>4 <b>But</b> some other people don't agree with this opinion.</p> <p>5 The opinion they support is that <b>if</b> we learn English well, Spoken English is just a small case to us.</p> <p>6 The most importance they think is read <b>and</b> write.</p> <p>7 <b>So</b> they advise that we should pay attention to learning English hard not spoken English.</p> <p>8 They <b>also</b> advise a test of spoken English will be not included as an optional component of English Test.</p> <p>9 I think spoken English is very important for us.</p> <p>10 <b>So</b> my advice is that a test of spoken English is necessary.</p> <p>11 We should exercise our spoken English when we are learning English.</p>	<p>Statement of issue <b>ISSUE</b> Preview</p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT FOR</b></p> <p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT AGAINST</b> Elaboration</p> <p><b>RECOMMENDATION</b> Summary Conclusion</p>	<p>1 Today, there are various recreational activities.</p> <p>2 In activities, we can make many friends <b>and</b> communicate with many different people.</p> <p>3 As you know, we can get benefits from recreational activities.</p> <p>4 Sometime, when we are tired of work, have low mood <b>and</b> having nothing to do, we can anticipate some recreational activities to relax us.</p> <p>5 Maybe in the recreational anticipate you will find the girl who will be your girl friend later <b>and</b> the boy who will be your boy friend.</p> <p>6 <b>But</b>, there are some harmful influence.</p> <p>7 Taking part in recreational activities may be spending your time.</p> <p>8 <b>After</b> recreational you will feel more tired.</p> <p>9 As a university student, I think we should arrange the time of recreational activities.</p> <p>10 Recreational activities is good for us, <b>but</b> don't let them influence you.</p>



## Appendix 20 Comparison of Results between MH4's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 There is no doubt that English is one of the most widely used languages in the world.</p> <p>2 So we students learn English when we are young.</p> <p>3 But when it comes to learning English, there are always two opposite options about the Test of Spoken English.</p> <p>4 Someone believe that the test is necessary.</p> <p>5 Because nowadays students often write, read and recite, but seldomly speak.</p> <p>6 According communication comes to a problem.</p> <p>7 But others hold the reverse idea. They think if we can communicate with foreigners, the test is not necessary.</p> <p>8 Two options are reasonable, but as far as I am concerned, I think the test of spoken English isn't necessary.</p> <p>9 Language is a test of communication.</p> <p>10 When we chat with others in English, it shows that the tool is used well.</p> <p>11 Why must we put the pressure on students who learn something passively?</p> <p>12 Why must we use the test to count the scores to show how frequently he can speak?</p> <p>13 It's no sense.</p> <p>14 So we draw the conclusion that the test of spoken English isn't necessary while we can use it.</p>	<p>Statement of issue</p> <p>ISSUE</p> <p>Preview</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT FOR</p> <p>Points of ARGUMENT AGAINST</p> <p>RECOMMENDATION</p> <p>Summary</p> <p>Conclusion</p>	<p>1 Nowadays with the rapid development of people's life and work, people's pressure is heavier and heavier.</p> <p>2 So we spend much more time on various recreational activities.</p> <p>3 Therefore, there are two different issues about the recreational activities.</p> <p>4 There are a series of advantages about it.</p> <p>5 For example, when we are so tired of working day by day, we can extantly escape from the pressure and join the recreational activities to relax ourselves.</p> <p>6 On the some way, it's beneficial for our mental health.</p> <p>7 However, it also may bring harm.</p> <p>8 If we're immersed in it, the recreational activities will waste our too much time.</p> <p>9 What's more, it may lead to the tiredness of working or it may be harmful for our bodies because we always enjoy it at night.</p> <p>10 After looking at both sides, my point is that we should use suitable time relaxing ourselves.</p> <p>11 And we sholdn't be immersed in it.</p>

## Appendix 21 Comparison of Results between ML6's Texts

Is a Test of Spoken English Necessary?		Recreational Activities
<p>1 Before we attend junior schools and senior school English test, we are usually requested to take part in spoken English test which make a discussion about whether it is necessary.</p>	<p>Statement of issue <b>ISSUE</b> Preview</p>	<p>1 As university students we live an ample life in our schools because we have so many recreational activities accept for hard studying. 2 Apparently, recreational activities have made our university life colourful and cosy.</p>
<p>2 Many people think it is necessary because it is one of the examination of your learning oral English over yours. 3 In another way, it can stimulate and force you to improve your spoken English in response to the trend of globalization.</p>	<p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT FOR</b></p>	<p>3 There are various recreational activities, such as sports games, computer games and so on. 4 As for sports games, they will strengthen our body and mind. Especially group activities can made our classmates' or friends' relationship closer.</p>
<p>4 However, some people are opposed to that. 5 They think this kind of test can't clearly reflect students' real ability.</p>	<p>Points of <b>ARGUMENT AGAINST</b></p>	<p>5 Then, computer games online help us make more friends all over the world and widen our horizon to a degree.</p>
<p>6 As far as I'm concerned, I agree with the second one. 7 Firstly, most of us spend little time on oral English in schools. 8 Such a test won't help us in the following study.</p>		<p>6 However, recreational activities may be harmful to us. 7 If we spend too much time on that, our study may be somewhat influenced. 8 When we are immersed in such interesting activities, we give rise to our laziness which may contribute to bad routine in daily lives.</p>
<p>9 The excellent students are still great while the bad one's are still so.</p>	<p><b>RECOMMENDATION</b></p>	<p>9 In my opinion, recreational activities not only can bring people benefits but also cause problems.</p>
<p>10 In short, with the reform of our education, I believe we will be tested in a better way in the future.</p>	<p>Conclusion</p>	<p>10 It is suggested that we achieve a balance among study, creativity and other parts of lives and make the best of spare time to make lives happier.</p>

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